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TO-DAY IN EGYPT

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VISCOUNT KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM.

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[Frontispiece.

TO-DAY IN EGYPT

ITS ADMINISTRATION, PEOPLE AND POLITICS

BY

ALFRED CUNNINGHAM

AUTHOR OF "THE FRENCH IN TONKIN," "THE CHINESE SOLDIER AND OTHER SKETCHES"

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"Wholly to regulate the pace of progress by the preference of the most backward section of the people of Egypt, which is, in other words, the mass of the people, would be to delay indefinitely. But public security, public justice, adequate means of public transport, the public health and public instruction, must always claim priority among civil needs. These are primary organic wants in society and should be adequately provided for."—LORD CROMER.

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PREFACE

THE following pages seek to record impressions of Egypt and its "primary organic wants in society" after a residence there, in which the writer had some connection with public affairs. The impressions are those which concern chiefly the resident, whose view of the country, its people, and its future is naturally different from that of the tourist, who visits the country for a brief period to escape the rigours of a northern winter, and finds it an agreeable and fascinating experience.

No attempt has been made to deal with matters relating to Egypt's ancient civilisation or monuments or to depict the many subjects of interest which appeal to the artist. It is in no sense a guide-book to visitors as its title might suggest, but it may be found useful for the purposes of the intending resident.

References are made to other Eastern races, which are prompted, perhaps naturally, by the author's travels in and experiences of Eastern countries. He has endeavoured to set forth, however inadequately, the views of the resident in Egypt concerning the administration of the country and to describe fairly its politics.

The author wishes to record his gratitude to H.H. the Khedive, Viscount Kitchener, Sir Reginald Wingate, and others for kind permission to include their portraits; to those English and Egyptian friends who assisted him with photographs and material; and to the Editors of those publications from which quotations are given, and acknowledged, for their kind permission so readily accorded.

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TO-DAY IN EGYPT

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

In October 1911, Lord Kitchener arrived in Egypt to continue the work of the regeneration of that country. His presence is the best assurance to all whose interests are vested in Egypt that the fabric whose foundation Lord Cromer laid so firmly will be carefully and solidly completed.

Lord Kitchener of Khartoum himself has already done much in the making of Modern Egypt. His conquest of the Soudan alone made Lord Cromer's task possible, as he swept out of existence the fanatical hordes whose presence there, intoxicated as they were with their successes, was a perpetual menace to Egypt.

With the Soudan under British protection and administration the security of the Nile—Egypt's sole water supply—was assured, and that alone made possible the completion of those gigantic irrigation works essential to the agricultural development of Modern Egypt.

Lord Kitchener is no stranger to the land of the Nile, as the first upward steps in his remarkable career were made there. He is one of the highest authorities on the country, its people and its requirements, and he may be trusted to interpret the responsible duties of his office according to his ex-

perience and knowledge, and to apply the satisfactory remedy, which the intolerable situation requires, to bring the country back to the path so laboriously and so patiently opened for it by Lord Cromer.

It is conceivable that Lord Kitchener will also have other duties to discharge, for Egypt, strategically, is now the pivot on which our expeditionary forces will move—east or south. To us Egypt is of the highest military importance, as the "gateway of the Orient," and we are there to stay for that, if for no other reason. In spite of all academic Parliamentary discussions and ministerial platitudes over the gift of self-government to the Egyptians when they are in a condition to receive it, no other Power in existence otherwise interprets our presence there. We went to Egypt to safeguard our interests, and we remain to protect and develop them in accordance with changing political requirements. It was therefore an act in keeping with our best traditions in statesmanship which placed our ablest soldier on the Nile. It was a decision worthy of the one whose prescience secured for us the control of the Suez Canal. Whether the present Government is to be credited with such foresight in having prompted its decision, or whether the appointment of Lord Kitchener to Cairo was an acceptable way out of other difficulties, is known only to those who sent him, but the important fact remains that he is now in Egypt, and that his presence will mean the sure regeneration of the country, apart altogether from the preservation and advancement of our own imperial interests.

The salvation of Egypt and all the mixed races who dwell therein depends absolutely upon a vigorous, sturdy, honest administration, which will commend

itself to the public as being impartial, clean, and, within its means, progressive. The same simple, quiet, honest, and progressive system of government seen in the Soudan is needed in Egypt; law and order must prevail, and under the experienced direction of capable British officials in every department the country can be well and truly administered and the work of civilisation carried on. India and the Federated Malay States are fitting examples of what may be done in Egypt, but at the head of the work must be one whose prestige and counsels will command the respect of the political party which is in office in London, and whose character and ability will ensure the fullest and best service from every one of his subordinates, British and Egyptian.

It is perhaps impossible for the man in England to grasp fully the significance of Lord Kitchener's arrival in Egypt. It is an end to many things which were rapidly and insidiously undermining the life-work of Lord Cromer. Under the unfortunate administration of the late Agent-General, for which the British Foreign Office was equally responsible, the country undoubtedly went back. For some time it struggled in the throes of financial stagnation and political revolt. The lessons of discipline and honesty, initiated and enforced with a firm hand, that never tolerated evasion, indifference or negligence, showed evidence of weakening in nearly every department. Public confidence in the Administration continued to decline; the credit of the country was shaken; and the fabric which a few years ago was unanimously regarded as a masterpiece of British colonising ability showed increasing and unmistakable evidence that, unless arrested, it would meet the fate of other civilisations in Egypt.

The British officials on whose services in educational and administrative work Lord Cromer placed such great hopes, began to lose confidence in their superiors, and many, viewing the future with misgiving, left the country. The British advisers, instead of ruling the native officials, became the ruled; they had the feeling that they "would not be backed up at the top" and preferred to accept what was apparently the inevitable. They only gave advice, being assured it would never be carried out by native ministers appointed not always for their integrity and ability, who in their turn were completely intimidated and ruled by a crowd of noisy agitators. This feeling of depression and lack of confidence pervaded all ranks, many of the younger men preferring in consequence to quit the service.

The experiment was a failure. That was ultimately admitted by the late Agent-General, but, unfortunately, the mischief was done and it was not within his power to repair it. The friendly and disinterested advice of many who had spent their lives in the country and in its service was ignored. The public good yielded to personal affluence and native political aggrandisement. Political graft manifested itself in not a few departments, and was encouraged by administrative weakness, apathy, or liberality, interpreted according to the views and experience of the observer. The reason given was that "Egypt must hasten slowly," a reason which was ever apt to degenerate in subordinate minds into an excuse for many sins of omission.

The doctrine of Egypt again became that of "Maleesh!" the native apology for "Never mind, don't worry; it can't be helped!" and there was

unmistakable evidence that its closest ally was revived in the Oriental cancer of "Baksheesh!"

At the last moment, and not a day too soon, Lord Kitchener was appointed Agent-General in Cairo, in succession to the late Sir Eldon Gorst, whose untimely death was regretted by everyone who had the honour and pleasure of knowing him and appreciating his great ability and high character. Sir Eldon Gorst had many brilliant gifts, but his sphere was the diplomatic service. His life was given to his work, and the want of success which characterised his period of office cannot be laid entirely at his door. He was a loyal servant of the Foreign Office, and it was not his privilege to command the freedom of action which his predecessor possessed, and without which Lord Kitchener cannot conceivably have gone to Cairo. This experiment of ruling Egypt from Downing Street has proved a disastrous failure; for Egypt's essential need is a governor. After his work in the Soudan, and with his thorough and unique knowledge of Egypt, his determination of character and brilliant career, Lord Kitchener is too strong a man to be entirely dominated by the Foreign Office or to be influenced by party politics and the independent political fireworks of those who, seeking notoriety where it may be found, have allied themselves to the Nationalist agitators in Cairo and are doing their best, consciously or unconsciously, to retard the progress of the country they presume to represent.

The story of Modern Egypt is contained in several admirable works. Lord Milner's book will be found to supplement that of the great viceroy, revealing how Lord Cromer ruled Egypt with a rod of iron, tempering firmness with justice, but permitting no

liberties with his government. Lord Cromer's history gives every detail in the marvellous regeneration of the country, a task forced upon Great Britain. It is a record revealing a new Egypt and the forces which are yet but moulding; it bears witness to his great constructive policy in saving, protecting, and developing the national interests which were committed to his charge; it shows how the country was rescued from bankruptcy and brought to prosperity, though harassed and checked by the continual impediments and restrictions generated by international jealousies. Not a few may be found who criticise without hesitation the rule of Lord Cromer and speak glibly of many intricate problems as if the making and ruling of Egypt were to them a rule of three.

To the foreign mind, especially to that now venturing into the thorny and intricate paths of colonial or protectorate government of alien races, Lord Cromer's work stands as a masterpiece of regenerative administration. He succeeded even in Egypt, gradually and with infinite patience, and in the face of inconceivable opposition, in making bricks without straw. It is an example to be followed by all governments acquiring similar responsibilities, and I am happy as an Englishman to know of one.

It was my pleasure to enjoy the friendship of one who was an attaché to Marquis Ito when he was appointed to the control of Korea. When Lord Cromer's book was first published I discussed it with him and, at his request, lent it to him. Later, when returning it, he remarked what a wonderful and valuable work it was. "It is the very book the Marquis needs. I must buy a copy for the Marquis." This is characteristic of the Japanese. Their success is in

many respects due to their adapting the best that we can offer for the elucidation of their own problems. They build on our successes, and profit by our mistakes.

In the following pages I have produced nothing to supplement the works I have mentioned. I have neither the desire nor the ability, knowledge, or experience, to do so. They are the records of those who were the builders of Modern Egypt, and if the average reader finds such works difficult to obtain he can for the expenditure of one shilling purchase Sir Auckland Colvin's *Making of Modern Egypt*, a most admirable and trustworthy guide to a knowledge of Egypt's passage from serfdom and bankruptcy to freedom and prosperity, and written by one who himself took an active and prominent part in that work.

My object is to depict things in Egypt as they exist to-day in the eye and experience of a resident, who, whilst proud of the work his nation has accomplished by means of men whose greatness has been recognised, yet sees as an individual a possibility of that work being undermined by the forces existent in Egypt. Much has been done in Egypt in gigantic national enterprises, but these concern principally the people of the country. From the point of view of the foreign resident there is need for more progress and not a little purification. It may well be argued that these will come in time, but it must be remembered that Egypt to-day invites the foreign resident, capitalist, merchant, assistant or official, and it is not unreasonable for these to desire in the administration many improvements, the introduction of which may be retarded by official lethargy or indifference, although the cost is unlikely to result in financial embarrassment or national ruin.

The presence of Lord Kitchener will not only guarantee protection to natives and Europeans with vested interests in Egypt, but it will ensure that the administration of every department which makes for the progress and prosperity of the country will be faithfully, honestly and energetically carried out in the best interests of all. The European official time-server will speedily mend his ways or disappear; the Nationalist agitator, who so recently controlled the native ministers, will bow his devoted head with Oriental fatalism to the inevitable; for the hand that swept the Soudan of the Mahdi's hordes is feared in Egypt. Last, but by no means the least, with the introduction of essential reforms in the law courts the country may to a considerable extent be purged of those undesirable characters of every race, who find in Egypt a modern Alsatia, where their own national laws may be defied, other laws evaded, and the simple people of the country exploited.

There is every chance that with an honest, capable, Anglo-Egyptian administration the successful future of the country will be again assured, but much has to be done (a great deal over again), and many changes in the personnel may be necessary. The country is still suffering from a financial crisis, accentuated by recent heavy failures of large institutions hitherto believed to be sound. The following pages are intended to show something of the task Lord Kitchener has before him, and to enable the British public to gain an insight into Egypt as it actually is to-day, divested of the glamour thrown over it by enterprising tourist agencies, so that they may realise some of its needs.

HIS HIGHNESS THE KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.

By permission of *African World*.

CHAPTER II

A GENERAL SURVEY

EGYPT to-day is a country of many races. In this respect Cairo, its capital, surpasses even Singapore in the variety and numbers of its population. There are few nationalities which are unrepresented, and they are congregated mostly in the capital and at Alexandria, which remains the principal seaport of Egypt. Every European nation is represented, many largely, and so is practically every race found in Asiatic Turkey. Natives from all parts of British India are seen, though not in large numbers, for a considerable trade is done in Indian products; and although Turkey and Egypt have at present no commercial treaties with China and Japan, inhabitants of these two far Eastern countries are also in evidence. The ubiquitous Indian tailor has recently followed in the wake of Anglo-Indian military and civil officers, and he appears to be thriving, whilst the Bombay and Colombo merchants with their pedlars do an extensive business in curios, laces and silk productions. Even the countries of South America have representatives trading in coffee and other commodities.

It is a marvellous assembly of peoples from all over the earth, attracted by commercial requirements and opportunities. The native Egyptian is ignorant of modern trades and not adapted to

business pursuits. He usually falls an easy prey to the Eastern Hebrew and wily Levantine.

The native population of the country is eleven millions, inclusive of some thousands of Bedouin Arab tribesmen, who are nomads, keeping still to the desert, where they breed cattle, horses and camels, and, incidentally, other living things.

The bulk of the natives are fellahs or peasants, and are engaged chiefly in cultivating the soil, either on their own small holdings, or on the estates owned by wealthy landowners and native and foreign syndicates.

As the Irrigation Department year by year extends its sphere of operations, bringing water to the land by means of canals, so the area of cultivation increases, the people acquire new and larger holdings, and the country grows steadily in agricultural prosperity.

With the advent of the British, labour was freed; the land and its products became the actual property of the hitherto nominal owner. Previously the peasant and farmer alike were at the mercy of the Turkish and Egyptian officials, compelled to labour at the dictates of their superiors and to sacrifice their own products at the demands of the latter, who frequently retailed such produce for their own profit.

It is unnecessary, however, here to detail the state of bondage which existed when the British first put their hands to the administrative plough. To-day the bulk of the natives, as the younger generation are apt to forget the oppression of their fathers, are a quiet, simple folk, with a strong streak of cupidity in their nature, interested only in their immediate surroundings, and engaged, with the gradually increasing facilities provided by their government, in

the daily round of cultivating a soil of marvellous richness, which, with almost daily sunshine and an abundance of water, requires but little attention or strenuous labour.

What would your Scottish and Norwegian farmers not give to be able to grow crops in such a fertile soil and under such generous conditions?

The soil of Egypt, when fertilised with the water of the Nile, appears to be capable of growing anything, and needs but little of the hard manual labour necessary in the countries of North Europe.

The Nile is the life-blood of Egypt, for without its invigorating and fertilising waters the country would become a parched desert. The rainfall is small indeed—as a rule, a few showers a year, generally during the spring, and sometimes in the autumn. The fields under cultivation are flooded in the evening with water from sluices of the canals, or raised by means of baskets, and water-wheels, and in the daytime they bask in the warm sunshine—Utopian conditions for the agriculturist.

As in other eastern lands, the peasant's knowledge of agriculture is very limited. What little he knows he acquires working from childhood upwards in the fields, in traditional grooves. He grows maize and a few vegetables to supply his own simple requirements, berseem for his goats and buffaloes; the latter being the animal whose duty it is to drag the venerable wooden plough or to turn the water-wheel, whilst the ass carries his master afield.

The advent of the British has not only released the fellah from slavery, his land from bondage, and given him a plentiful supply of water; it has gone considerably further, and is yet patiently engaged in the gigantic task of endeavouring, and with

much encouraging success, to instruct him in the advantages to be derived from higher agriculture, which adds to the profit of the individual and promotes the prosperity of the country.

In this the Government, whose beneficent task is regulated by the financial means at its disposal, is assisted by several societies and public-spirited persons.

In the School of Agriculture at Cairo there are being trained, on a scientific basis, and under British masters, Egyptian students who, as they graduate, are attached to Government departments as inspectors, in agriculture on their own account.

The principal staple grown in Egypt to-day is cotton, and this at present constitutes the agricultural wealth of the country, for in quality it is generally considered to be unsurpassed.

The cotton exports from Egypt in 1910 realised £E.24,242,000, but the 1911 crop is reported to be about one million kantars less, viz. 6½ millions against 7½ millions in 1910. Next in importance comes sugar, the yield of which in 1910 amounted to 515,000 tons of cane.

Rice also is now largely cultivated, the exports in 1910 being valued at £E.288,000.

The extensive and general cultivation of cotton carries with it a grave risk, which Lord Cromer was not slow to recognise; for given a succession of bad cotton years, due to disease of the plant or carelessness in attention arising from greed in handling the proceeds as early as possible, the financial results may be disastrous.

To eliminate this risk the School of Agriculture, and the newly-created Department of Agriculture, whilst studying very closely the cotton plant, encour-

age, with kindred voluntary societies, the natives to grow fruits and vegetables, and, as the soil and climate are so favourable to many varieties, their efforts are meeting with a fair measure of success. This is proved by the fact that the onion crop in 1910 was the largest ever produced, the exports to the European markets amounting in value to no less than £E.264,000. It is a weary task, for the natives must be continually advised and instructed in the elements of fruit and vegetable culture, and the chief obstacles to be surmounted are ignorance and cupidity, the fellah frequently coming to grief through the latter reason alone.

Education must be the principal factor in the improvement of agriculture leading up to the serious production of staple crops. The path to success lies in the technical education of the young, for their ultimate profit and the country's good.

One great obstacle to the advancement of the peasant is that he can neither read nor write. It is therefore useless sending him written or printed instructions, but he can realise very readily prompt financial returns and given these he is not unwilling to experiment.

Cotton, of course, will ever remain the biggest product, and, with the recent creation of a State Department of Agriculture, which the country has long required, but wanted for financial reasons, much may be done to improve and extend its area of cultivation.

The School of Agriculture in Cairo has done magnificent work, in its scientific research labours, imparting much practical and invaluable information to growers, but its object is to teach students and not to attempt the impossible task of regulating the

agriculture of the country, which is essentially the duty of a State Department.

A strong and well-endowed Department of Agriculture was one of Egypt's most urgent needs, so that its trained inspectors could in every province inspect, instruct and advise. Egypt is essentially an agricultural country, and there is urgent need among so ignorant a people for much education, supervision and direction.

The sudden acquisition of wealth and of the sense of security in the possession of his holding by the fellaheen is not without its disadvantages to the progress of agriculture, for it has quickened the natural cupidity of the peasant and renders him reluctant to engage in innovations or variations of crops.

As an instance it may be stated that during the last few years the cotton plants have been most seriously damaged by the cotton-worm, which has ruined thousands of acres, resulting in heavy and general losses. The cry has gone up each year for more Government inspectors to visit the plantations, condemning those in which the pest was found to exist, and advising growers as to measures for protection and prevention.

The inspectors were not so numerous as they might have been, and the difficulty was to induce growers with afflicted crops to make sacrifices for their neighbours. After much persuasion, measures of prevention were carried out in the presence of the inspector, only to be neglected when his back was turned, and to be ignored the following season. In many cases it was found that instead of taking the trouble to burn the infected plants, the fellaheen simply left them on the ground or dumped them into the adjoining canals to carry the infection elsewhere.

The Government, too, has been lamentably slack in the matter, but its excuse has been want of funds to provide sufficient inspectors. Each year there is a public agitation on this point, an agitation which in some degree is ultimately successful.

A bad cotton crop means tightness of money and general stagnation of trade in Egypt, for the people have not as much to spend.

The Garden of Egypt is found on the banks of the Nile and its Delta. In glancing at the map there will be found a thin strip of green on either side of the Nile as it is traced southwards to the Soudan. The rest is mainly desert. Nile mud placed in the desert in sufficient thickness and carefully watered forms a soil in which anything appears to thrive.

The flowers of Egypt are lovely and varied. Sutton's well-known seeds, with Nile mud and a generous never-failing sunshine, have turned waste desert into beautiful gardens bearing in luxurious profusion every conceivable kind of European bloom. There are fields of roses to be found along the settlements in the Nile Valley, and a number will be passed at Cairo on the way to the Pyramids.

Even at Heliopolis, the new White City (now being created by a Belgian Syndicate, a few miles from Cairo, as a residential suburb), although built entirely in the desert, has in its gardens masses of beautiful flowers of European varieties. The sweet pea alone would fill the heart of a suburban London amateur gardener with envy.

At Zeitoun and Matarieh, the old suburbs on the banks of the Nile, nearer Cairo than Heliopolis, the flowers and eastern fruits are magnificent, and the same applies particularly to Alexandria, Tanta and Fayoum, the first possessing a very strong repre-

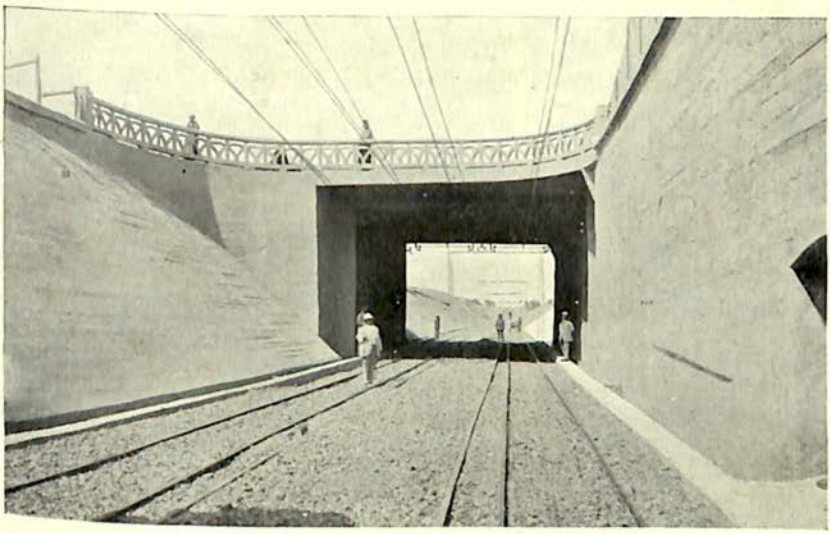
sentative and flourishing horticultural society, which gives annual exhibitions, with prizes. It is now enthusiastically and successfully encouraging seed production.

Excellent specimens of various European vegetables are grown, and last year many samples were sent to European markets with the object of opening up an export trade. The cultivation of such vegetables is gradually appealing to the native grower, who begins to see in them an element of profit.

The fruits grown are chiefly dates, oranges, grapes, figs, prickly pears, plums, peaches, apricots, melons and mangoes, and in their seasons there is always an abundance of these in the markets.

The principal commercial port of the country is Alexandria, with a population of 332,000, situated at a distance of 130 miles from Cairo. The town has few of those objects of interest which the visitor generally associates with Egypt, but there are some ancient monuments remaining which are well worth a visit. It is, on the whole, well administered by a foreign municipality, and is now, like Cairo, embarking on a system of modern drainage, designed by its able municipal engineer. It is essentially a progressive business town, being the terminal port of most of the shipping trade with Egypt, and it is here that the large transatlantic and European steamers bring annually their shiploads of tourists from Europe and the United States.

In summer the social life of Cairo, as far as the residents are concerned, is transferred to Alexandria, which then becomes a fashionable and enjoyable seaside resort, where one can escape the unbearable heat, dust and desolation of the capital. Here are to be found all kinds of sports and amusements,



NEW ELECTRIC RAILWAY CUTTING AND BRIDGE, CAIRO.

THE PALACE HOTEL, HELIOPOLIS.

for there is a good sporting club resembling that of Cairo, and race meetings and gymkhanas are frequently held. The community of Alexandria is essentially a sporting one and the summer there is enjoyable.

Beyond the centre of the town, in the rapidly-growing suburbs, are many handsome modern villas, while there are numerous hotels by the seaside for the visitors and residents, among which the Grand Casino San Stefano is one of the best. The town is well provided with scholastic institutions, and among them the Victoria College, with its English head and assistant masters, gives a secondary education suited to the needs of the younger generation of Europeans in Egypt.

Cairo, as the capital, is the seat of Government, and here all the administrative departments have their offices. It has also a very large residential population, of natives and foreigners, exceeding that of Alexandria. The total population of Cairo is roughly half a million. During the tourist season, when visitors flock to Egypt, attracted by the sunshine and mildness of the climate, Cairo is one of the gayest places in the world. It is here that the tourist makes his base before proceeding to Upper Egypt and the Soudan, and it is here that he returns for a brief spell of rest and recreation before leaving the country.

From Cairo the visitor proceeds by rail to Luxor, Assouan, Fayoum, The Oasis and the Soudan.

Referring to the question of the climate of Egypt and the popular theory that irrigation has made the climate colder and more humid, Mr. B. F. E. Keeling, of the Survey Department, Director of the Observatory, Helouan, in a most interesting paper

read before the Cairo Scientific Society recently on the "Climate Changes in Egypt," pointed out that it is very common to have it stated that the climate of Egypt has been getting much colder and damper of recent years.

Climatological observations have been made at Abbassia since 1869, and it is shown by a consideration of the mean annual temperature that during the last ten years the temperature has been almost identical with that of the previous ten years, and about half a degree cooler than the ten years before that. It is also shown that there is a fairly well-marked periodicity of the temperature, corresponding pretty closely with the prevalence of spots on the sun.

As regards humidity, since the beginning of the observations, forty years ago, there is no sign of any change in the amount of moisture carried by the air, the average amount having been throughout the period about 10·5 grammes of water in each cubic metre. The amount of rainfall shows a very slight increase since 1900 over the amount which fell in the previous ten years, the difference amounting to 7 mm. per annum; but the annual rainfall is so greatly affected by occasional heavy showers that it would be rash to say that Egypt is getting wetter.

As for the question of an alteration in the climate during historical times, there are two circumstances which make it probable that an examination of historical records would give considerable information about this interesting subject. At present, frosts, though they may occur in Egypt, are extraordinary occurrences. If, then, we find that from time to time severe frosts are recorded, as in A.D. 829, 1010 and 1750 (*circa*), there will be evidence that Egyptian winters have remained approximately the

same. Again, south of Cairo, rain is very rare in the Nile Valley, and if heavy rainstorms have been noticed by contemporary writers there will be direct evidence that formerly they were not of greater frequency than now. Herodotus mentions a severe rainstorm at Thebes, which was taken as a warning of coming disaster.

The decay of the country to the west of Alexandria is shown to have been due, not to desiccation, but to the Arab invasion, by which a race of settlers was replaced by a race of nomads.

There are but few industries at present in Egypt. There are, of course, cotton ginning mills in Lower Egypt, and numerous huge cigarette factories, some employing many hundreds of workmen to manufacture the tobacco imported from Turkey and Greece into the ubiquitous Egyptian cigarette.

Egypt is not permitted by Turkey to grow tobacco, though recent experiments have shown that it can be grown in the country, and an agitation has been for some time on foot to secure the consent of Turkey to allow its cultivation; but as Turkey enjoys a considerable revenue from such imports, it is unlikely that such consent will be readily obtained. This may surprise the average cigarette smoker in England who is partial to the "Egyptian." In Egypt it is unrivalled as a cigarette, is very cheap, and, what is more important, is there purchased when freshly made. All cafés supply a cup of Turkish coffee and five Egyptian cigarettes for one piastre (2½*d.*).

The bulk of the "Egyptian cigarettes" sold in London are not imported from Egypt, but are made in London from cheap Greek tobacco, which is inferior to Turkish, and in many cases the Egyptian

revenue stamps are actually purchased in Egypt and sent to London—many also to Germany—for the purpose of deceiving the public.

Among the few other industries are several large engineering establishments, chiefly for repair work and the construction of light craft for the Nile, the largest being the depot of the Suez Canal Company at Port Said. At this port are also situated the works of the Egyptian Salt and Soda Manufacturing Co., which produces salt obtained with but little trouble from the marshes, and which pays a large royalty to the Government for the monopoly. Whilst meeting all local requirements it also exports big quantities to foreign countries. In 1909, 82,000 tons of salt were manufactured and 84,000 tons sold, and added to that carried forward from the previous year thus left in stock, a balance of 162,000 tons. The net profits were 607,778 piastres (100 pt. = £E.1).

There are also several cement and brick and tile-making works. On the whole the industries are very few and are not proportionate to the needs of the country, as practically every article used and worn is imported from foreign countries. To some extent the Government is responsible, for it is due to a line of policy laid down, with a view to the fact that the revenue of the national exchequer is largely dependent on the import duties levied on all foreign goods. The import duty is 8 per cent.

Practically all articles for foreign use and for the use of those natives who now live in European style are imported or are manufactured in the country from imported raw materials by European workmen. Greeks, Italians, Jews and Maltese are the principal mechanics and skilled workmen engaged in producing articles for foreign consumption. The native in-

dustries, beyond providing unskilled labour for buildings, are confined chiefly to meeting native requirements.

The question of technical education has, however, deservedly received the attention of the authorities, who, assisted by public benevolent enterprise, have created numerous technical schools, which are gradually increasing in number. In these schools intelligent native boys are taught skilled trades by British instructors, whilst a course of technical education, which is not quite up to the same standard, is taught by competent instructors in all the large jails. There is good reason to believe that in time native labour will displace imported foreign labour, which, cheap as it is, is much more expensive than native labour.

Most things in Egypt are still in the transition stage and many years must elapse before the natives are trained to supply their own rapidly growing needs, which education, contact with the foreigner, and the accumulation and generalisation of wealth, have created.

The ambition of the Egyptian youth of to-day is to dress in European clothes and to acquire all the European luxuries of life within the means of his father, who invariably spoils his son. In place of a mud-hovel or crazy erection of sun-baked bricks he desires a European-built house, with all its modern attachments. The new tastes and requirements of the young Egyptians have followed on their emancipation and development. The reefer suit has displaced the flowing folds of the galabeah, but the red tarbush is still the universal headdress, though it is now without the turban attachment.

It is in the provinces that the native costume still

prevails, and the students of El-Azhar, the large Moslem college in Cairo, also wear it. Although patriots plead for retention of the galabeah, or robe, the reefer suit of tweed, flannel, or Soudan cloth, continues its triumphant progress.

The women dress the same way as of yore; all are attired in the flowing black robes, covering the head to the feet, with the skirt trailing behind in the dust, and the mysterious yashmak or veil of white silk concealing the face just below the eyes. All eyes look the same under the deceiving yashmak: "You cannot tell the difference between sixteen and sixty!" There is a tendency among the Turkish women, or Egyptian-Turkish women, for such are the wives of the better classes, to lessen the thickness of the yashmak, many now adopting a flimsy silk muslin covering, which, like the veil of her European sister, is perhaps entended to enhance the attractiveness of the face beneath. These coverings are in many instances sufficiently thin and transparent to permit the contour of many pretty faces to be seen, the question of transparency depending upon the coquettish proclivities of the charming wearer, and the degree of licence permitted by her husband. When travelling abroad, and even on the steamer to Constantinople, the veil is dispensed with, so that a custom of religion, even with a Moslem people, depends a good deal upon local habits and local criticism. In the spirit of interpretation of certain things, the gulf between Wimbledon and Ismalia is really not wide. Local convention is a stern taskmaster, for your gay tourist entering into all the frivolities of Cairo life is hardly recognisable as the austere and sedate Sunday observing citizen of a London suburb.

The Egyptian woman's costume resembles that of

a sister of mercy, minus the white starched hood, the latter costume obviously having been adapted from that of the women of Eastern lands.

In social life the various nationalities lead to a great extent a separate existence, preserving the national institutions and customs they have brought with them. Each European race is represented by its own outward evidences of religion, in churches, schools, institutions and clergy. There are also numerous national benevolent societies and hospitals for the poor and afflicted, and others for the benefit of poor natives.

Chief among the latter are Lady Cromer's dispensaries, doing excellent work among the poorest classes, especially the Moslems, and these are augmented by European convents, dispensaries, religious homes, institutions and societies. There is no lack of charity in Egypt on the part of the Europeans towards the alleviation of the poor natives of Egypt, and those who flock to it from adjacent countries.

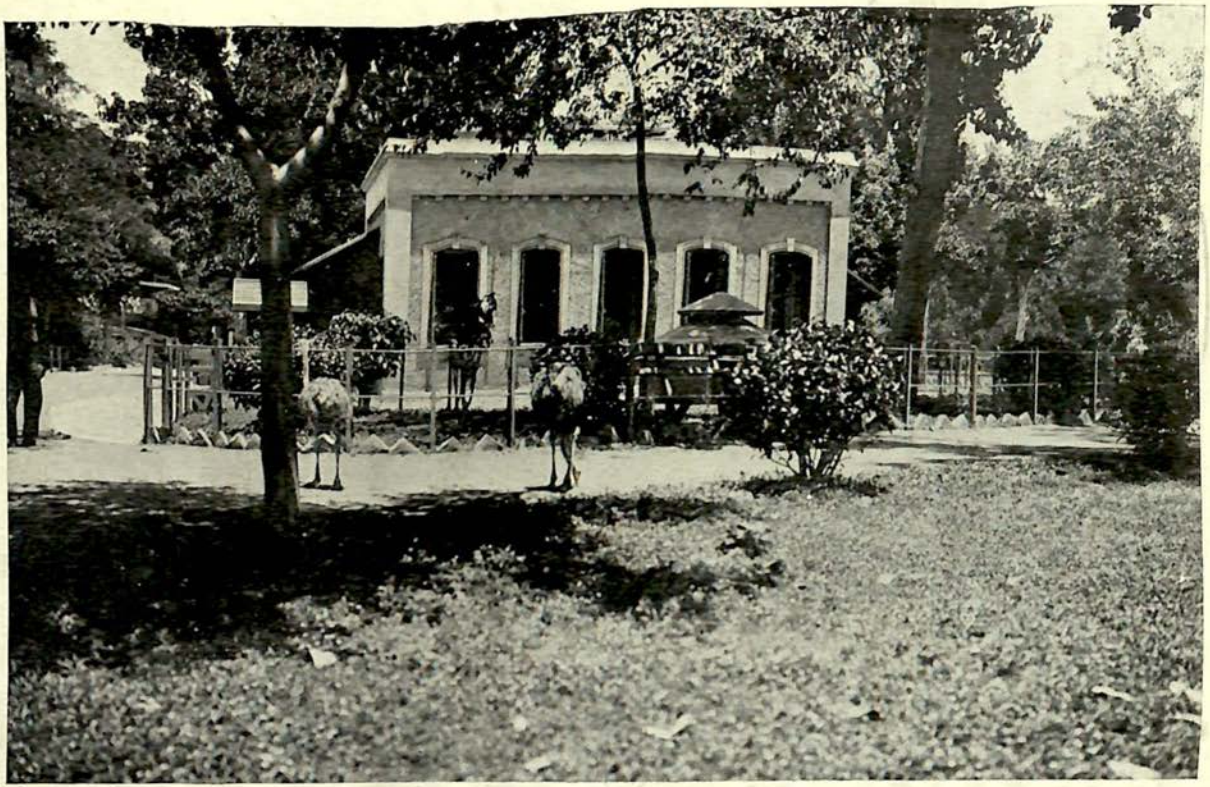
English, American, German, French, Italian, and Greek missionary societies are engaged in scholastic and hospital work in various centres, and have large establishments in Cairo. The principal object of these appears to be to give a secondary education to Moslem and Coptic boys and girls, for which education a charge is made, and the work is not only self-supporting but profitable. The Israelites, in whose ranks are numbered both the poorest and the wealthiest residents in Egypt, look well after their own unfortunate brethren.

The time when all races meet is generally at one of the numerous race meetings or public national fêtes, to both of which entertainments the wealthy

Egyptians are exceedingly partial. People are also brought together at the dances, receptions, and theatres, though the Moslem women take no part in these, and if they attend it is to gaze from a screened-off gallery above on the spectacle below.

The largest foreign elements in Egypt, next to the Turks, are the Greeks, Italians, and Israelites—who thrive exceeding well—the French, Belgians, Austrians, British (20,653), Russians, and Germans, and some from practically every other race under the sun. It is a wonderful mixture. French and Arabic are the two languages generally spoken, though English is rapidly making headway and in a few years promises to be the commercial language of the country. Naturally Italian and Greek are largely spoken. The result is that a European boy born and educated in Egypt is usually an excellent linguist, speaking perhaps four or five languages. My office boy, a lad of fourteen, the son of an English soldier who had settled there, rattled off six languages with considerable fluency, though his vocabulary, acquired in the playground and streets, was not always of the best.

On the whole there is very little international friction, for they are an army of foreigners in a strange country, with a common purpose and common interests, the making of money. Withal the native thrives also, when not in the meshes of Greek and Jew money-lenders, and continues, when moderating his tastes for things European, to get richer. In the provinces, as with the peasants of India, he often prefers to bury and hoard his savings, and this alone is a question of inconvenience if not anxiety to those responsible for his progress. But your native in the country and his brother in the town



ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS, CAIRO.

From a photo by Captain C. Flower.

are two very different persons, for city life in Egypt has produced a type which is not advantageous to the country itself. Degeneracy is noticeable here, as elsewhere, for simplicity in the one has given place to knavery and untrustworthiness in the other.

CHAPTER III

PORT SAID AND CAIRO

A VISIT to Cairo is a revelation. Port Said conveys no impression of the capital, for it is but the shipping port of entry into Egypt. Port Said is a small place, suffering unfairly from an unenviable reputation, which after years of striving for respectability it is still unable to shake off. Its legitimate functions are to replenish ships' coal bunkers and to provide pilots for the Suez Canal. Also, from a passenger's point of view, to allow one to stretch one's legs again on shore, and so break the monotony of ship life, if only for a few hours. Port Said has few pretensions beyond those of its hotel proprietors in providing a satisfying meal to visitors—mere birds of passage, who come ashore for a few hours.

Years ago it was well described by those who knew it as one of the worst places on earth, where any crime might be committed and be passed over unnoticed. The one ostensible business of its resident European population was trafficking in immorality. It was a moral cess-pit, and no stranger was safe within its gates.

Since then times in Egypt have changed, and Port Said has undergone a moral and general clean-up. As a seaside resort it is now rapidly rivalling Alexandria; as a residential centre it is, in the summer, much superior to Cairo.

There are still a few dark spots in Port Said (the "a" pronounced as a Cockney would sound it), but they are unobtrusive and unnoticeable unless you walk into them. Its morals would now compare most favourably with those of even distant Chicago, for the women of the class who helped to make it notorious are much less in evidence than in Piccadilly. Following the Japanese custom they are relegated to a special quarter, and it is the duty of the police to keep them there.

With the cleaning-up of Egypt generally, the claims of Port Said were not overlooked, and as the headquarters of the Suez Canal Company are centred here the interests of this wealthy and powerful concern are identified materially with its progress and destiny. It now controls its own municipal affairs.

There are now about three hundred British residents in Port Said, mostly engaged in shipping business. A new town and foreign residential quarter has been created for these and their fellow European citizens. There are two excellent little European clubs—one British, to which is attached a recreation club, where all sports are played with that peculiar zest which the Englishman imparts into his national games, whether played in Egypt or near the Equator as at Singapore. The P. & O. boats and a visiting cruiser can always put up cricket or football teams, and tennis tournaments are frequent. Numerous bathing-machines on the sea-front provide for bathing, but one has to get a good distance out to enjoy a swim.

New houses—really nice, convenient, well-built residences—have sprung up alongside the roads recently created. There is an enormous casino on

the sea-front, for dances, teas and entertainments, and here an excellent small orchestra of British ladies gives daily performances.

There are schools and churches, and a well-conducted hospital, built by British initiative. The town is well policed by Egyptian constabulary, trained by British officers, and no one need fear molestation. The native quarters, with that of the poorer Europeans, are at the rear of the town, the population being about thirty-five thousand.

Port Said may seem a poor sort of place to the visitor, but it is a haven for the jaded resident from the interior or Cairo to fly to during the heat of summer. The walk along the new breakwater in the early morning is a pleasure not readily forgotten. The accommodation at the Exchange Hotel is equal to any. It is a big building of seven stories, the frame-work built of steel in England, furnished throughout by a London West End firm, under experienced English supervision. I know of few places to excel it in Egypt, where hotel catering is a serious and profitable profession.

When the visitor stands outside the railway station in Cairo, after a journey through the fertile Delta, expecting to find a second edition of Port Said, he is bewildered with the scene before him. The drive through the centre of the city to the hotel he has selected only increases his astonishment in revealing the fact that he is now in the midst of a huge city, modern in its buildings, traffic and equipments.

There are foot and mounted police regulating the big streams of traffic. Electric trams, motor-cars and taxi's seem to be everywhere. There are hundreds of carriages, mostly drawn by splendid

little Arab horses. With the exception of the characteristic head-dress of the crowds of natives there is, on first impressions, little to remind one that he is in the midst of an ancient Oriental city.

With the wide streets, broad pavements shaded by trees, large modern European-built buildings, the basements of which are well-filled stores with Paris and London goods temptingly arrayed behind plate-glass windows, there is nothing to suggest that this portion of Cairo is not really a part of Brussels or some other cosmopolitan European capital.

The shop-signs are mostly in French, but as English and American money play such an important part in the business of the shop-keeper, English signs are conspicuously in evidence. Indeed, some of the largest stores in Cairo are British, and the bulk are owned by European nationalities.

Everywhere there are cafés, run mostly by Greeks and Italians, and whilst other trades seem to languish at periods, these appear always to thrive. They are an independent fraternity and do not hesitate when necessary to place chairs for their customers on any part of the pavement; side roads they annex as their own, even to roping-off portions.

The pedestrians must take to the roads—at least to the portions not roped off. The police have long given up the thankless task of interfering, as the maximum fine, after a series of offences, is 7*s.* 6*d.*, which the café proprietor cheerfully pays. It is difficult for the police to regulate traffic on the footpaths under such conditions.

The central portion of Cairo is to all appearances a well-built, well-kept modern city. The Khedive has already erected numerous large handsome blocks

of buildings, fitted with every modern convenience, including electric lifts. New large additional blocks in the same quarter, built of stone and white sand-bricks, are now completed. Better buildings for shops and offices could not be found anywhere.

Throughout the central portion of Cairo the old buildings are giving place to new, lofty, handsome structures, many of which are let as residential flats or business offices at high rentals.

Within the last three years, since the advent of the financial crisis, which has played sad havoc in Egypt, all securities and investments have dropped considerably. Rents have shared the same fate, much to the appreciation and benefit of the resident. Before the crisis rents of the new buildings reached fabulous figures, and offices there were, in some cases, more expensive than in the City of London. But everything has depreciated, and rents especially fall when the leases expire. Even now, however, house-rent is unreasonably high compared with other places, but this is due principally to the inflated prices paid for land and freehold property when the boom was at its height.

In the tourist season, which commences in a quiet way in October, warms up after Christmas, and ends in March, big prices are paid by the visitors for accommodation, which naturally affect the expenses of the unfortunate resident.

There are about a dozen big hotels in Cairo and its vicinity, which offer the visitor, at a price, accommodation not to be excelled in Paris or London. Shepheard's, the Ghezireh Palace, Mena House, Heliopolis, Savoy, Angleterre and Al Hayat at Helouan, are famous examples. As most of the hotels are only open from October until April it can be

readily understood that their scale of profits must cover the months of the year when they are closed.

But if their charges for accommodation are excessive they treat the traveller remarkably well, and without them he would experience an unpleasant time. There are, of course, other hotels, where the cheap trippers are catered for, but they are not in the same class as the former.

In the centre of the town are the Ezbekieh Gardens, and these divide the city into the various quarters. A distance of three kilometres in either direction covers the city and suburbs. On the western side is situated the Ismalia quarter, where the leading hotels and the principal residences are situated. This extends to the famous Nile bridge, Sharia Kasr-el-nil being the main thoroughfare. In this quarter are situated most of the foreign legations and consulates, with the principal banks, leading business houses, the museum, and the old barracks.

Across the Nile bridge, the famous old suspension bridge which is now much too small for the traffic, are the most attractive of Cairo's suburbs, Ghezireh and Giza. Here again are the residences of the wealthy, European and native, and there are excellent roads bordered with trees, running past innumerable well-kept gardens, public and private. This is the Rotten Row of Cairo, and here in the early morning and the cool of the evening riding is much indulged in amid delightful surroundings.

Here are to be found the wonderful Zoological Gardens, under the competent and enthusiastic direction of Captain Flower. The large grounds are kept in splendid order and teem with bright-hued flowers of every conceivable kind, and lakes,

rockeries, rustic bridges, bowers and seats. There is no place in Egypt where one can spend a day more pleasantly and with more entertainment than here. It is a veritable oasis for the jaded Cairo residents in the hot dry summer, and in addition to seeing the large and fine collection of animals of all kinds, representative of the fauna of Egypt and the Soudan, a visit to the exquisitely laid-out grounds is a pleasure indeed after the oppressive heat of the day in the dusty city.

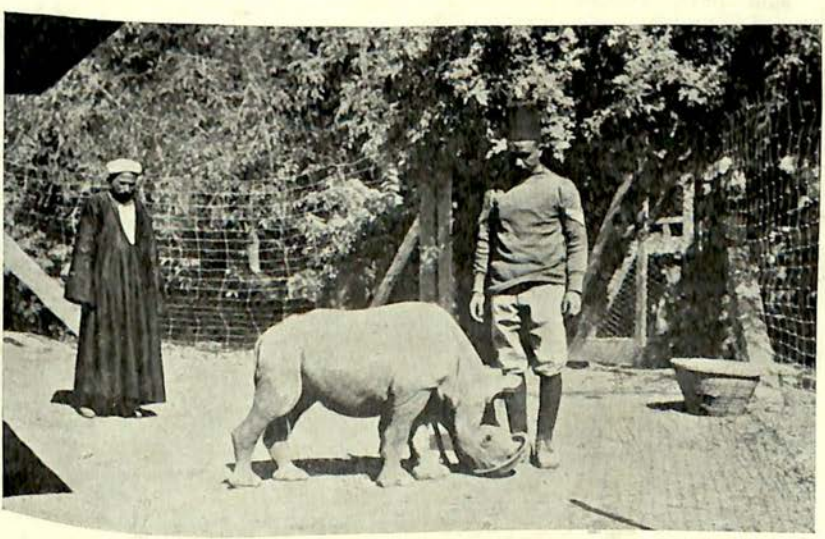
A native military band plays regularly, and teas are provided under the shade of the trees for those who desire them.

The gardens are visited by the many thousands of natives who arrive in the capital from all parts of Egypt, and for these they must have provided many a valuable object-lesson in horticulture and the beautifying of waste places. The gardens, and the nucleus of the collection of animals, were, I believe, the property of the Khedíve and were given over for the public benefit.

The tramway line to the Pyramids passes the main entrance to the gardens.

In the opposite direction—Ghezireh—is to be found one of the most valued and popular institutions in Egypt to-day—the Ghezireh Sporting Club. It is an international European club, in which the Anglo-Saxon element naturally predominates. Here are held periodical race meetings, cricket, football, polo and hockey matches, whilst attached are excellent golf links and tennis courts. It is an excellent and well-administered club in every sense of the word, and without it there are many residents who would find life in Cairo absolutely unendurable. This may be recognised by visiting the club any

THE LAKE IN THE ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS, GIZA.



BABY RHINOCEROS IN GIZA ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.

afternoon from 4 o'clock onwards, for it only becomes deserted as the fading light prevents the continuance of play and heralds the approach of dinner.

The road to the club and beyond runs for some distance alongside the bank of the Nile, which has recently been laid out as a public garden by convict labour. Alongside the bank are anchored a fleet of dahabeahs or house-boats, steam and sailing craft which convey the resident and traveller up or down the Nile. They afford many a pleasant week-end, picnic and sailing excursion, and during the long oppressive summer are preferred as dwelling-places by not a few residents to the houses on shore.

Returning to the Ezbekieh Gardens, we find at the southern end the fine opera house of H.H. the Khedive, which is used every season by French and Italian opera companies. In the garden itself are one or two small theatres, and in the centre is the band-stand. Here during the summer the bands of the British regiments in garrison take it in turn to give most excellent after-dinner concerts, open to anyone who cares to pay a penny for admission—the money received being devoted to the up-keep of the gardens. The concerts are most popular and are much appreciated, for there are few summer evening amusements in Cairo, and none more enjoyable than these. It was a sight to watch the pipers of the Scottish Borderers marching up and down the path playing some stirring old Highland march. The cosmopolitan crowd showed unrestrained interest and, curious as it may seem, delight, and pressed upon the pipers in hundreds, scarcely allowing them room in which to march. And what a spontaneous outbreak of applause at the close!

The Egyptians and the Soudanese have taken to the Scottish bagpipe in the same spirit as the warlike Sikh. It is quite a common sight to see a native band, consisting of pipers and drummers, playing Scottish airs, and leading a wedding cavalcade. So great a hold has the much maligned bagpipe secured upon the affections and presumably upon the ears of the Egyptians that there are now in the bazaar quite a number of native shops devoted solely to the selling and repairing of bagpipes. Once again, even in Egypt, has the bagpipe proved its harmonious and civilising mission! To the Sassenach "Akers' Drum" may sound much the same whether played by Scot or Egyptian, but, as the Arabs are a trifle reckless with their incidental notes and their control of the wind-bag of the instrument, it may be assumed there is a difference.

On the eastern side of Ezbekieh Gardens lies the Ezbekieh quarter, the bazaar and native city, with its dense population. The population of Cairo is 650,000, and this is the most congested quarter. Here is situated also the Citadel, now garrisoned by British and Egyptian troops. From its walls a magnificent view is obtained, especially in the early dawn, of the surrounding country. To the south of the gardens is Abdin Palace, the town residence of the Khedive. It is not an imposing building. Beyond is the old native city, with its bazaars, hovels and mosques. To the north are the new residential suburbs, inhabited mostly by the poorer Europeans, and the Coptic and Syrian quarters. Abbassia, with its military depots, lies here, and beyond the suburban residential districts of Zeitoun are Matarieh and the new desert model city of Heliopolis.

Cairo, embracing as it does the old native city

and these outside suburbs, covers a very large area indeed, all parts being easily reached by the electric tramway system, managed by a Belgian company, whilst the State Railway and new electric railway run quick and convenient services to Zeitoun, Matarieh and Heliopolis. It is possible now to reach any part of Cairo by means of electric trams, which have a rapid and cheap service, suited to the needs of the populace.

Amusements are well provided for. There are innumerable clubs, the principal being the Turf Club, for English residents, and the Khedivial Club, which is international in membership. There are numerous other social clubs, and not a few native political clubs representative of the complex shades of native political aspirations. There are many theatres and music-halls, of a somewhat low Continental type, whilst the cinematograph entertainment is everywhere in evidence, good, bad and indifferent. There are also plenty of native houses of amusement for those who appreciate the unadulterated Arab entertainment.

If the visitor or resident, in the eyes of the Cairene, is not too thin-skinned, or rather from the Cairene point of view, puts his national prejudices behind him, he may find in Cairo one continual fund of recreation and amusement. But a little soon palls, and one longs for some entertainment less questionable and more healthy in tone.

But entertainment and recreation follow on habit. In Cairo, in the summer, it is customary to commence work in the offices at 8 a.m. and to lunch at noon. Important business offices, banks and Government departments then close for the day, and after lunch comes the siesta.

Shops begin to raise their shutters again at 4 p.m., and it cools sufficiently for one to enjoy a walk or a game of tennis about 5 p.m. Dinner follows at 7.30, and at 9 o'clock Cairo is thoroughly awake, with a long evening before it. Recently, to check gambling, and other social evils which flourish to a considerable extent, the Chief of Police issued an order compelling cafés, clubs, and all places of amusement to close at 2 a.m. This decree provoked much unfavourable comment from a large section of the community other than British, which declared that it found it impossible to retire at so early an hour during the hot summer nights. These people preferred sleeping in the afternoon, and enjoying the night and early morning seated outside the cafés. The Chief of Police, however, having certain objects in view, steadfastly adhered to his ruling, so Cairo has recently reformed to the extent that the curfew is now 2 a.m., which would seem to be a reasonable retiring hour for most people.

In the height of the season, when Cairo is thronged with its crowds of sightseers, seekers after sunlight and pleasure, and wealthy residents and natives bent on either duty or amusement, present in the capital in their thousands, it is one of the gayest and most attractive places in the world. Visitors flock yearly in increasing numbers from every country in Europe, driven by the bleak winters in their own lands to the ideal climate and daily sunshine of Egypt. In January and February Egypt has all the charm of an Italian springtime, and is gay with life and colour; there are lovely flowers and blossoms everywhere where vegetation exists, bright blue skies overhead and warm sunshine daily. The depression and despondency created by the chilly damp days

and lowering skies of northern Europe are dispelled as soon as one comes within the cheerful sunlight of Port Said, and the tourist can sit in an easy chair in the hotel grounds on the verge of the great desert, basking in the sunlight, and read of frost and snowstorms, with their accompaniments of chills and influenza, in the London papers five days old.

It is little wonder then that those who can afford the time and money flock to Egypt, and the host of pilgrims is headed by the royalty and aristocracy of all European nations, whilst Atlantic vessels, detached for the purpose, bring shiploads of citizens, their wives and families, from Boston and New York.

During this period H.H. the Khedive is in residence at Abdin Palace, Cairo, where he holds frequent receptions for all who care to call, and the Diplomatic Corps and the Ministers are then also in residence in Cairo.

The huge hotels compete one with another in providing entertainments, the most popular being the weekly concerts and dances. The visitors are essentially cosmopolitan. They are in Egypt for pleasure and enjoyment, and whilst it is questionable whether they would attend public balls given by hotels in Europe, in Cairo it is the custom to do so, and members of royal families and aristocracies do not hesitate to attend and foot it as merrily as the rest.

The annual confetti fête at Shepheard's is now one of the most enjoyable and wonderful events of the season. Nothing is left undone by the careful management to provide for the amusement and pleasure of the guests. There is always a British military band playing in the grounds, which are illuminated with fairy lamps and Japanese lanterns,

and there all guests promenade bareheaded—in February—most of the ladies, however, covering their charming coiffures with veils, not as a protection against the cold but as a provision for the confetti battle which comes later. Here there may be seen the bright-eyed American girl, her eyes brimming with fun and mischief, pelting the English subaltern; and her French, Greek, English, and German sisters enjoying themselves to their hearts' content in the same fashion. Nor does the confetti fever seize upon the young alone, for the Chicago merchant or British visitor of serious mien is soon drawn into the *mêlée* with the other elders of the many nationalities present. It is just one huge frolic.

The entertainment is usually preceded by private dinners in the large dining-rooms of the hotels. It is attended by everyone of any consequence in the capital. It closes with fireworks and an impromptu dance kept up until the early hours of the morning. It is an entertainment enjoyed by all who have the good fortune to be present, and is never forgotten. The Christmas entertainment in the same hotel is now an historic event.

There are concerts galore by first-class musicians from Europe, operas by French and Italian companies and open-air fêtes in the Public Gardens.

In the daytime there are numerous sporting events: cricket, polo and football matches, tennis tournaments, race meetings, and gymkhanas. There are bands everywhere, and it is not surprising that the visitor leaves Cairo after a residence of a week or so with the feeling that he has had one of the jolliest holidays he ever spent, in an ideal climate with the best of everything at his elbow.

Naturally, the resident participates in these en-

joyments according to his leisure, and a very jolly time the young English men and women have. There are many of the latter who proceed to Cairo each season, to be engaged as governesses, giving lessons in English to the children of wealthy Egyptian and Continental parents, and for that they are generally well paid.

In Egypt, as elsewhere, the Britisher who has settled there has created those institutions which form the basis of his home life. The indispensable church and cricket field are both much in evidence. There are two Anglican churches in Cairo, All Saints' and St. Mary's, administered by three English clergy. The former is practically the old "parish church" and the latter a new erection built in connection with a society for the conversion of the Jews. The Church Missionary Society's headquarters in Egypt are also in Cairo, but it, like the American Mission, is engaged chiefly in educational and medical labour among the natives, and in these departments does admirable work.

The efforts of the society for the conversion of the Jews deserve a passing reference, if only to illustrate the misplaced energy and expenditure on the part of sentimental people at home; these conceive it to be their duty to send money which—following the sensible example set by the Jews themselves—might be spent with infinitely more profit and happiness in alleviating the wants and removing the depravity of their own poor and wretched in London alone. Originally, the ground on which stand the church, rectory, dwelling-house for teachers, and school, was a gift of the Government. It has now, with the buildings, increased enormously in value. The school's sole duty at present is to provide a secondary education for

Moslem pupils, to the number of at least 250, who pay £10 per annum. Whilst it has no opportunity of exercising its proper function, it is at any rate a most profitable enterprise, and succeeds owing to the inability of the Government to meet the demand for school accommodation.

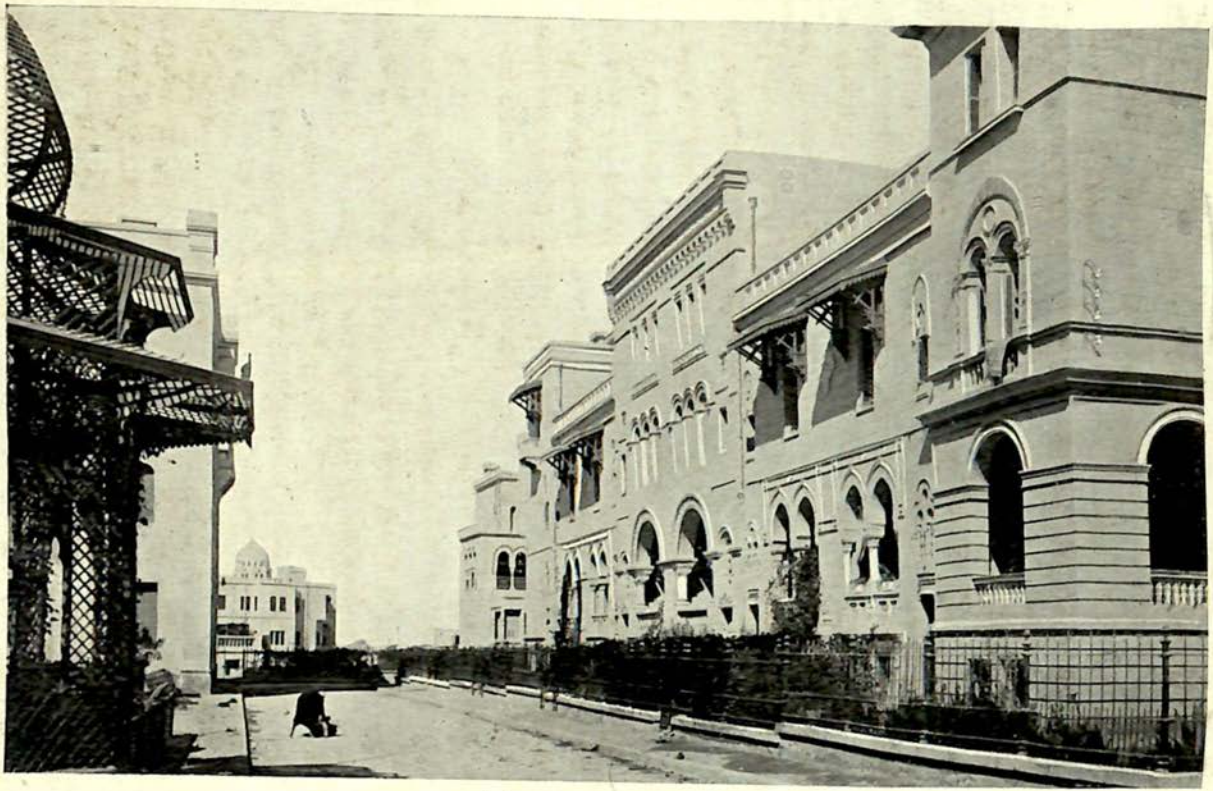
No one will cavil at the institution, for it is performing a useful, also profitable work, other than that for which it was created, and it is evidence that if pious people wish to be sentimental and generous their offerings might with more satisfactory results be devoted to rescue and charitable work at home.

As a mission it is a source of good-tempered amusement to the Israelite community in Egypt, which is very large indeed, and as elsewhere represents the poorest and the richest in the land. There are numerous Israelite benevolent societies providing for all cases of want and destitution. The Jews are a community who give generously to all public and deserving institutions.

The Scottish community has its own church, whilst there are numerous Roman Catholic and garrison churches. The usual services, meetings, picnics on the Nile, and entertainments are held amongst the members to promote religious and social feeling as at home.

The Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. are both actively in evidence, the former having recently obtained an energetic secretary from London to organise the work, and both are well supported and perform useful functions.

And if they are needed anywhere in any city of the world they are needed in Cairo, which appears to many visitors to exist solely for the pursuit of pleasure. There is a perpetual danger to every young Englishman, living as he does in the environ-



A STREET IN HELIOPOLIS.

ment found in Cairo, that he may fall an easy victim to the dangers that so thickly beset him, and these may end in his undoing and ruin.

Unpalatable as the subject may be, it will not be considered that any description of modern Egypt, intended to be accurate, can be complete without reference to what is the greatest blot upon the administration of the country, and even more upon the British advisers responsible for the direction of that administration.

If ever a city deserved the name of "modern Babylon" it is Cairo. In fact, it is questionable whether Cairo, in the light of twentieth century civilisation, is not infinitely worse than the ancient city referred to. To one who has seen most capitals of the world, new and old, and many other cities which have an unsavoury notoriety, there is none to compare with Cairo in the degradation, vice and depravity which are permitted to exist and flourish, even in the very midst of the city, under the nose of the authorities, who make no attempt in the name of morality and decency to check these evils.

The authorities are not without their excuse. The hoary-headed Capitulations, it is urged, do not allow the Egyptian Government to tamper with the rights and freedom of any European subject, consequently the Egyptian police can exercise neither restraint nor control.

At the south-eastern end of the Public Gardens—stretching roughly from Opera Square (the central place of business) to the rear of the Abdin Palace—is a densely crowded district, inhabited by thousands of people, mostly small European shopkeepers, the poorer classes of all nations and natives. This is popularly known as the "Fishmarket."

The greater part of this district is given up to grog-shops, cheap cafés, low-class music-halls and brothels. And such brothels! Huge houses, with many rooms partitioned off into cubicles—like opium dens in a Chinese native city. These at night time are filled with the most depraved wretches brought over from the scum of the brothel quarters of every Continental city. The night is hideous with the orgies of these unfortunate creatures, who, under practically no police restraint, and with the open protection of their foreign soutenirs, can do exactly what they please—short of murder and robbery with violence, which not infrequently occur; but even under such circumstances it is doubtful whether a constable would be admitted without a warrant from the consulate of the nation to which the tenant of the building belongs.

Cheek by jowl with these scores of flaming, foreign hells, full of their gaudily-dressed occupants soliciting from every window of the thronged streets below, is the quarter where the native prostitutes dwell, and even this quarter has been invaded by the more degraded of their European sisters. Their dwellings are hovels of the vilest description. A few wooden bars in an opening of the wall form a window, the door stands open, revealing two or three fearsome-looking hags—for the native women age early and rapidly—squatting or lolling on dirty wooden benches, with a few dirty coloured rags as coverings. The floors are of earth, the walls of plastered mud, and in some cases where a vestige of respectability is aimed at, they are limewashed. Dirt, vermin, vice in their most loathsome forms are here, and these animal dens, with their fearful occupants, are under police supervision! Here every form of immorality is practised.

There must be thousands of these creatures and their protectors living on the proceeds of vice in its worst form in this portion of Cairo alone. This suppurating moral cancer is permitted to exist and spread every form of loathsome disease not only throughout Egypt but even to the Soudan. The evidence of every medical man who has practised in Egypt and served in the Soudan will confirm this.

It is perhaps undesirable for numerous reasons that Great Britain, as the tutelary Power, should seek to impose upon Egypt its own peculiar legislation with regard to the control of vice of this nature. In fact that would not be tolerated. Other Powers, who hold different views from the British moralist, believe in its efficient regulation rather than impossible attempts at suppression. It is therefore impossible to believe that if the British adviser, backed by the British and other communities, suggested a measure for the purification of this district, with proper police and medical regulation of brothels in Egypt, he could not, with a little firmness exercised in his attitude towards certain Powers, whose subjects are known flagrantly to profit largely and considerably by importation and promotion of prostitutes, but be successful in his efforts. In the mind of the bulk of the British public England is responsible for the welfare of Egypt, and this responsibility is felt by all foreigners in the country. It is, therefore, begging a most important if distasteful question for the British adviser to blind his eyes and wrap himself in his diplomatic mantle, saying it is not his business.

If a few views of the "Fishmarket" in Cairo by night could be produced throughout Great Britain they would raise such a storm of disgust and indigna-

tion that the demolition of this quarter and the deportation of the bulk of its occupants would occur in a very short time, in spite of the indifference of the British Agent and the Egyptian Ministers and the existence of the Capitulations.

The whole thing is a blot upon our administration in Egypt and discreditable to the British religious bodies in Cairo, who profess to ignore it It is a disgrace which is felt keenly by all decent, patriotic Egyptians, for such a cancer comes upon them from without, and they alone are powerless to regulate or destroy it.

It is earnestly to be hoped that British and foreign opinion in Egypt will shortly turn to the matter, for it is often discussed. A persistent agitation, with home support and influence, is needed to rid the country of this most degrading stain on a boasted western civilisation. No foreign Minister could excuse himself for declining to sanction its reformation on the ground of the Capitulations. European Powers are not generally credited with allowing their subjects to flourish on vice which is unrestrained and uncontrolled, infecting the whole country. The Ministers waived their objections and yielded their rights under the Capitulations to enable the new drainage scheme of Cairo to be put into operation; they could waive them just as easily to permit the cleansing of this form of moral sewage.

The obstacles which the police find in dealing with prostitution they also find in dealing with other evils, notably gambling, the difficulties being the immunity of the European subject from arrest by the Egyptian police, and the various European laws in operation in the consular courts. What may be a serious offence in one court may be a

light matter in another. The absence of a criminal code for the country and its occupants, to which all shall be subject, is continually making itself felt and must continue to do so until the Capitulations are abolished.

It will therefore be seen that whilst there is much in the way of pleasant and innocent enjoyment in Cairo, there are several unpleasant parts of the city which only proper legislation and more strict administration, with the consent of the Powers concerned, can effectively control and if necessary eradicate.

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATION AND IDEALS

THE most responsible task of the Government of Egypt to-day is the education of the people. It is a national want. Compared with other countries possessing a civilised government, Egypt in the matter of education occupies a very low place indeed; perhaps the lowest.

This fault is not to be laid at the door of Great Britain as the tutelary Power; neither are the people to blame. It is the unhappy legacy of the old régime. Had the bulk of the people been educated, the task of regenerating this ancient land would have been considerably easier. It was obvious at the beginning of the period of reform that no great measure of progress could be hoped for in the absence of intelligent co-operation, sympathy and appreciation on the part of the people, and these are essential factors in successful government. Education alone could produce these, and in Egypt education is lacking. Even to-day it only touches the outside fringe of the population.

From the inception of her task England was aware of this need, but it had to stand aside until the administration of the country was put in order, and a revenue secured which, whilst paying off the country's heavy indebtedness to foreign

creditors, would also provide for the expenses of government.

The agitation for increased education in the country has long been in existence, but the efforts of the Administration, however much they may sympathise with those who urge it, have been restricted by financial considerations. There is still much to do in Egypt, and so little to do it with.

The literacy of the Egyptian population of Egypt is only 85 per thousand males and 3 per thousand females. In religion ten millions of the people are Moslems and seven hundred thousand are members of the Coptic Christian Church. The literacy of the Moslems is 78 per thousand males and 2 per thousand females, whilst among the Copts it is 188 per thousand males and 16 per thousand females.

Under such deplorable conditions it is easy to appreciate some of the difficulties in the work of reform which England has set herself to accomplish.

At frequent intervals we hear the cry of the Egyptian Nationalist agitator for self-government. He does not hesitate to claim that he represents the will of the people. Certain members of the British Parliament consider it their duty to second his efforts, and talk glibly of our oppression of the people of Egypt who demand in the persons of their leaders the right of self-government.

The figures quoted above from the last census shed an illuminating if harrowing light on the mandate of the Nationalist, whose political views are held by a very small percentage indeed of the population, for the simple reason that at least nine millions of the population know little of politics and care even less. They are solely interested in their occupations and social observances.

It is sometimes debated whether it would not have been better for the country if England had pushed forward with greater energy the work of education. There are not wanting those of this opinion, both Egyptians and Europeans, who think money used in other directions might well have been devoted to this purpose. A larger measure of education might conceivably have made the task of government easier and facilitated the progress of civilisation.

A similar view was taken by the United States when the responsibility for the government of the Philippine Islands was thrust upon her, a responsibility which, as in the case of England in Egypt, was unpremeditated and undesired. Americans came promptly to the conclusion that the first step to be taken was to educate the people, and they set about it in their characteristic fashion. Instead of sending a score or two, as we have done in Egypt, they sent teachers out in battalions—at least 5,000—and spread them all over the country, starting schools everywhere and improving the many scholastic institutions already in existence.

It may be argued that the Philippine Islands are a colony, whereas Egypt is an indefinable something, which certain British politicians even hesitate to pronounce as a protectorate, but the fact remains that the work of both Powers is identical in principle—each has promised self-government when the people are considered to be fitted by education and training to receive it.

One difficulty, however, in Egypt to the rapid extension of educational facilities is that of the language.

The object of the Government has always been

CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY SCHOOL, CAIRO.

to educate the Egyptian by means of his own language, namely, Arabic, and to avoid using either French or English as a medium, for that could only be a temporary expedient. It is a difficult matter at the present moment, and can only be overcome satisfactorily by training more native teachers and helping the English masters to acquire an efficient knowledge of the vernacular, which will enable them to teach in it. This is a matter which has received considerable attention at the hands of the Government, and is one which of necessity must occupy a considerable time in being settled.

English masters cannot acquire a working knowledge of Arabic in a day, and native scholars of the type needed cannot be trained to teach without a long period of preparation. It is essentially a matter of time and progress, and the education of the people must of necessity be slow in consequence.

But it need not be as slow as it is, for there is a very general opinion in Egypt that the Government might do considerably more to hasten and extend education than it is at present doing.

It might spend much more money than at present on education, and the excuse that the finances of the country will not permit of this can well be met with the argument that a few economies in other directions would provide material additional funds for this purpose.

Fortunately, there are existent forces auxiliary to the educational work of the Government, consisting of numerous private scholastic institutions, a number of which are due to missionary effort.

At present and for some time past there has been a general demand on the part of the people for

the spread of education, and this is one of the few sensible demands of the Nationalist party, in which it agrees with the moderate political parties, both Moslem and Copt.

There are now quite a number of European and American schools established in Egypt, which are well patronised and supported by all classes of natives; but it must be remembered that the European population of Egypt is a large one and carries with it its own educational requirements, which, on the whole, are well and satisfactorily provided for.

Such schools necessarily teach their own languages, and whilst this may be a considerable advantage to the native child of wealthy parents, it does not assist in the solution of the problem of the education of the masses of the people, who desire to be taught as cheaply as possible in their own language.

Education is the recognised responsibility of the State, and it is a great pity since there is such a unanimous demand for its extension that the Government cannot be stimulated to do more than it is at present doing.

The estimated expenditure on education in Egypt for 1910 was £E.505,000, being an increase on the previous year of £E.27,500, whilst that for 1911 shows a still further increase of £E.19,287. Of this £E.10,392 was expended on the central administration, and £E.8,895 was allotted to agricultural and technical education.

The recent decision of the Government to hand over the responsibility for the schools in the provinces to the provincial councils has unfortunately resulted in difficulties which can only be regarded in the

interests of education as lamentable. In certain districts the Copts predominate, and notwithstanding this the local Copts, some of them highly educated men whose beneficence in support of education is noteworthy, complain very strongly that the Moslems are using their privileges unfairly.

At the end of January 1911, Sir Eldon Gorst made a tour of inspection of the provinces where the Copts are chiefly settled, and investigated the question of alleged Coptic grievances.

Sir Eldon Gorst stated that he found that outside Cairo there were no serious complaints. Moslems and Copts, he declared, generally live quietly together, if they are left alone, and the worst possible service to the Copts would be to treat them as a separate community. Sir Eldon Gorst found that Coptic educational interest everywhere received due consideration from the provincial councils. In his last report he dealt at length with this question and pointed out that it must be recognised that the Egyptian authorities have made progressive efforts to deal with the complex question of religious instruction. "It is obviously impossible," he remarks, "to provide religious teaching in the Government primary schools for every denomination which may be represented there, but so far as the Copts are concerned, a great deal has been done to meet their wishes, and the Government will always be ready to listen to any claims of a practical nature for larger facilities in this respect than the resources of the educational authorities have hitherto been able to furnish."

A number of Coptic gentlemen, however, speaking in the name of the Coptic communities in the Assiut, Girga, and Keneh provinces, protest against

	1890.	1895.	1900.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
In Government kuttabs	1,961	2,625	3,966	7,410	9,045	11,014	12,369	13,365	13,545
„ institutions for training teachers for Kuttabs .	..	..	..	1,478	2,939	2,978	2,788	2,747	2,766
„ higher primary schools	5,761	7,333	6,489	7,175	7,918	8,544	8,585	8,386	8,644
„ technical schools and classes	393	393	377	675	769	859	819	854	1,352
„ secondary schools	734	684	569	1,345	1,380	1,910	2,113	2,243	2,197
„ professional colleges	382	249	288	743	962	1,304	1,511	1,548	1,599
Studying abroad (Egyptian Educational Mission) .	28	12	4	2	3	22	40	55	59

these views of Sir Eldon Gorst.

They declare they were never content with the educational policy of the provincial councils. Their rights are disregarded and the surtax collected from them is being spent on purely Mohammedan education. The principles of equality disappear in every respect, and they cannot believe that such a policy satisfies the sense of justice of the English people.

It is an unfortunate matter in more ways than one, for the Copts in the provinces mentioned are staunch adherents of the British Occupation, and are the leaders of a political party which advocates that European residents in Egypt should be represented, when the time arrives for Egypt to govern itself. The views held by these influential and broadminded Coptic gentlemen, who have given so generously to education, cannot be without some reason, and it is

unfortunate that their grievances should be treated lightly.

It is of interest to give a few statistics on education in Egypt. The Ministry of Education has under its direct management 145 vernacular schools called kuttabs, which are of a very elementary nature; six normal schools for training teachers for kuttabs, including one for women; thirty-two higher primary schools for boys and two for girls; six technical and trades schools, including one for girls; three professional colleges of medicine, law, and engineering; three training colleges for teachers and the school for Kadis; a total of 207 institutions.

The attendance at these institutions on December 31st, 1910, as compared with previous years, is shown on the opposite page.

The Ministry has also under inspection the following private establishments:—

	Attendance.
3,644 kuttabs	202,095
13 higher primary schools	3,535
9 trades schools	1,412
1 training school for nurses and midwives	35
The Ghizeh Reformatory	715

In his last report Sir Eldon Gorst pointed out that the Government had handed over to the provincial councils, who have become the local education authorities, the provincial elementary schools at present under the direct control of the Government; the special task of the councils being to increase and improve the existing school accommodation, to assure adequate equipment and a competent teaching staff, and to meet local needs by the co-ordination of public and private effort within the province.

In addition to the Government primary schools there exist many private schools of the same character,

and the following table shows the number of these institutions, divided according to nationality :—

Nationality of Institution.	Number.	Number of Boys in attendance.
Egyptian	187	20,646
American	88	4,736
French	78	7,575
Greek	13	2,386
Italian	10	1,478
English	10	885
Various	7	895
TOTAL	393	38,601

The School of Medicine at Cairo includes 207 students and several are sent to Europe annually for a post-graduate course.

At the School of Law the number of students in attendance is 352, of whom 238 belong to the English section, and 114 to the French. In 1909, seventy-two candidates obtained the diploma, and the British Agent quite wisely drew "attention to the fact that there is a serious danger of the law as a profession becoming overstocked, if it is not so already. At the beginning of 1909 there were 580 practising lawyers on the roll of the native Courts; seventy recruits a year would probably suffice to fill vacancies and allow for expansion. The Khedivial School alone could have provided this number, without taking into account the numerous Egyptians who study at the French School of Law in France."

As a matter of fact, if the roll of lawyers was reduced by one-half and kept at that figure for a few years to come, it would be of considerable benefit to the people generally. The Egyptians are rapidly acquiring a passion for litigation in common with

other Eastern nations undergoing the regenerating process. It is not a gratifying tribute to the success of Western civilising institutions and might well be modified with advantage to the country.

One of the most interesting and important features of the Government educational work is the training of teachers. The number of students in attendance at the training institutions rose from 958 in 1908 to 1,042 in 1909 and 1,128 in 1910, which are the latest official figures published. Of these students eighty were women, which marks a comparatively new and very pleasing departure in Egyptian education.

Every year a number of students are sent to Europe, twenty students being now the average, for a three years' course in various branches of study. At present there are between fifty and sixty undergoing this course of training, all of whom, with the exception of three in France, are in England. Four women students are being trained here, two being at Stockwell Training College, London, two at Homerton Training College, Cambridge, and two have qualified and returned to Egypt.

In addition to these students there are ten young Egyptians in England and seventeen in France whose education is supervised by the Ministry. Those who go to Europe independently number approximately 100 in England and 300 in France, Belgium and Switzerland.

Other important departments of education are agricultural and technical, for these concern the welfare of the bulk of the people, and in addition to the work of the Government, meet with increasing practical support on the part of the leading natives who desire the progress and development of the country.

In his last report Sir Eldon Gorst said that "Much public interest has lately been taken in the question of providing further facilities for agricultural instruction, and the aim of the department has been to encourage the foundation of agricultural schools of a practical and elementary character corresponding to the farm schools of France and England. Several of the provincial councils have already decided to establish farm schools in agricultural districts, and the department is endeavouring to co-operate with them in this respect. The schools are intended to train the sons of the fellaheen and small working proprietors so as to equip them better for their future life on the land. Each school will generally comprise one or two class-rooms, a small farm workshop, simple farm buildings, and upwards of five feddans of land, the whole work on which will be done by the boys themselves. Class instruction will be limited to elementary subjects and to giving an intelligent understanding of the why and wherefore of agricultural conditions and work. In order to provide an adequately trained teaching staff, five students of the School of Agriculture have been retained in the school as student-instructors, and their number will be added to in June next."

Reference has already been made to the great need for these forms of education to raise the standard of agriculture and to teach the Egyptians useful trades; so that native labour may obtain a share in meeting the requirements of the country, and thus displace to some extent the imported foreign skilled labour, as well as provide remunerative occupations for many of the people.

It is really surprising and most encouraging to see the progress of the young Egyptians at the

trades schools. There are but few English technical masters, and unfortunately, for some unexplained reason, even these have been reduced in numbers recently, but under their direction the results are extremely satisfactory. Excellent furniture of every description is produced, and all kinds of leather work, including harness-making, boots and shoes, which are in great request; tools of all descriptions are made, while silk and carpet weaving, engineering productions, bookbinding—in fact, most of the skilled trades appear to be taught. A visit to the annual agricultural show, where all these schools exhibit their productions, is a revelation, and practical testimony to the fact that under European direction the young Egyptian is capable of becoming a first-class craftsman. Unfortunately, on leaving school and being left to his own resources, his native habits of slackness return to him and his work deteriorates. Under skilled supervision, however, the standard can be maintained.

"The new trades schools at Luxor, Damanhour, Beni-Souef, and Toukh are now," according to the last report, "in full working order. The opening of these brings the number of non-Government trades schools up to nine, with an attendance of 1,601 (1,460 boys and 141 girls), as compared with a total of 843 in 1909. The cost is about £23,000 in subventions from the department. Three of these trades schools include agricultural sections, and two contain sections for girls. A proof of the continued demand for such institutions is that in 1910 no fewer than 1,960 applications were received for 384 vacancies in the newly opened schools.

"The two small trades schools at Nag Hamadi and Sohag are nearing completion, and the Pro-

vincial Council of Gharbieh has asked for the assistance of the Government in the foundation of a school of weaving at Mehalla-el-Koubra, the largest centre of this industry in Lower Egypt."

The pleasing rivals to the trade schools in the teaching of arts and crafts are the prisons. It is impossible to over-estimate the good work done by the prison authorities in teaching the prisoners a number of useful trades. The bulk of the prisoners are of the ordinary native type, men unable to read and write and ignorant of any trade, who on leaving prison would in all probability continue their career of crime. They enter the prisons absolutely ignorant of any occupation beyond living on their wits and the nimbleness of their fingers. They leave in each case with the knowledge acquired of some useful trade, which renders them more self-supporting and useful members of society. They are infinitely better off after leaving prison, with the habits of discipline enforced and a trade learned, than when they entered it. But this department, it is perhaps unnecessary to add, does not come within the scope of the Ministry of Education. These reflections were prompted by seeing the showrooms of the prisons instruction department side by side and in friendly rivalry with those of the trade schools at the last agricultural exhibition. It is technical education on a large scale in another direction, making at the same time for the welfare of the people; for this and other reasons, the prisons discipline appears to be increasing in public favour.

In connection with technical education it is interesting to again quote a few extracts from the annual report of 1911.

"There were 174 applications for admission to the

School of Agriculture, of which, however, only 88 could be accepted. This brings the number now in attendance up to 196, as compared with 138 in 1909. A post as instructor in land surveying and farm engineering has been filled by an Egyptian who was formerly a student in the School of Engineering. New farm buildings have been completed at a cost of £E.5,000. Arabic has been adopted as the medium of instruction and introduced in the first-year class."

"A further development in the technical branch has been the introduction of commercial instruction by the formation of evening classes in commercial arithmetic, book-keeping, typewriting, and short-hand. Forty-two classes are now being conducted in the Nasrieh School in Cairo, and it is proposed to extend the scheme to Alexandria.

"An addition to the number of Government schools directed by the department has been made during the year by the creation of a practical school of housewifery. Thirty girls, selected from the Government Kuttabs of Cairo, are taking a two years' course of instruction, the chief aim of which is to prepare them for household work and to be better wives and mothers. The school includes a large kitchen, laundry, and needlework rooms, and all the work of the house is carried out by the girls themselves. No fees are charged. The fact that ninety-four applications were received for thirty vacancies is sufficient indication of the demand for this type of useful instruction.

"The total attendance at the Government technical schools and classes represents a very large advance on the previous year.

"Considerable progress was shown in 1910 in the

six technical schools and workshops under the direct control of the department. The applications for admission to the Schools of Engineering and Agriculture, the Boulak Technical School, and the Mansourah Trades School have exceeded those of any previous year. There was an improvement also in the educational standard of the applicants, and it was found possible to accept a larger number of them.

"The attendance at the School of Engineering averaged about 100, and seventeen students were awarded diplomas—fourteen in irrigation and three in architecture. One of these was selected for further training in England and the rest have received posts in the Ministry of Public Works. Two ex-students of the school have been given appointments on the staff, one as vice-principal and the other as assistant instructor."

In addition to the work of the Ministry of Education there are the Police and Military Schools; a description of the former will be found elsewhere.

Female education, as may be realised from the tables quoted in the early part of the chapter, is of but recent growth. When the percentage of literacy shows that but three native women per thousand of the female population are able to read and write, some conception may be formed of the small part which the female performs in the work of civilising modern Egypt.

Given an educated and enlightened motherhood the Egyptians would be in every respect a better and stronger people. "The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world" runs the old adage, but it is difficult to teach boys and girls in the schools not only the rudiments of reading, writing and

arithmetic, but, what is of paramount importance in Egypt, the elementary lessons of hygiene, when in their homes there is neither sympathy nor understanding. Good habits and lessons enforced at school are doffed with the galabeah when the portals of the home are entered. The state of female ignorance in Egypt is indeed appalling, but within the last two years there have been pronounced aspirations among the people, especially of the middle classes, for female education. The young women are responding, and the experience of the teachers shows that the girl makes a better scholar than a boy. The progress of the movement for the education of girls has been comparatively rapid, and the results extremely gratifying.

The Moslem religion is a great difficulty, for the pupils must be taught by women, and the difficulty has been to secure an adequate number of trained teachers to meet the demand. There are 445 scholars in the Government female primary schools. In the female kuttab schools, which give a very elementary education, there were 22,094 scholars in 1910, as compared with 21,034 scholars in 1909, and at the Boulac normal school for women teachers in kuttabs there are now sixty students undergoing training. Thirteen of the kuttabs have been specially set apart for girls, are attended by 2,080 pupils and are staffed by forty-two native women teachers trained in the Boulac College.

Among the better classes the practice is growing of sending the female children to foreign schools, whilst the wealthy employ, in accordance with the Turkish custom, foreign governesses for the education of their girls.

The following interesting article written by a

lady resident of Cairo, Miss Florence Davson,* gives a comprehensive description of female education in Egypt:

"The recent Congress on Education held in London naturally awakes the interest of all dwellers in Egypt in the question of education for the Egyptians, and especially in that of education for Egyptian women. There are now some seven hundred girls and young women in Egypt, undergoing a carefully directed course of study that varies according to their degree and to the particular school in which they are placed. The progress made in the last twelve years has been very great, and it must be remembered that the work is one of much delicacy and difficulty. Those who, from lack of knowledge, cannot understand the labour entailed are too often ready to offer criticism. Most difficult to please, however, are those devoted teachers of high attainments, who, in their anxiety to bring their pupils to a higher standard, expect to arrive at a perfect result.

"It is not too much to say that twelve years ago there was hardly an Egyptian lady who could read. This would not have been of so much importance had she possessed domestic accomplishments and known how to keep house, to direct the cooking, the laundry, and to work cleverly with her hands. But to be a capable housewife was not within the scope of her ambition and capabilities. . . . In the case of a lady all actual work was carried out by servants. The long hours of harem solitude and seclusion hung heavily; and idleness brings mischief at its heels and succeeding empty days with their slight complement of tittle-tattle, lazily-given orders, and attention to finery could but result in deterioration, bodily

* Contributed to the *Egyptian Daily Post*.

and mental. What could a girl or woman do who had neither studies, nor books to read, nor needlework, nor liberty to take exercise ?

" She could eat sweets, she could visit her friends, she kept the house after the slack, disorderly fashion of her mother and grandmother, she visited and gossiped with her women friends. She listened to interminable romances from the lips of the slaves, tales which too often stimulated the imagination in the worst manner and possibly paved the way to deceit and intrigue. Her standing in the eyes of men was low and devoid of respect. Her power, if any, was the material influence gained by beauty or the underhand craft resulting from adroit flattery.

" When the idea of educating women was first brought before the chief Egyptians they looked on the project with doubt and distrust. Education would naturally mean liberty. The girl would learn to read and their books would tell them of the customs of women in other countries. They would be discontented with their seclusion and break their bonds. Liberty would mean free intercourse with the other sex. That their daughters should talk and walk with men like the women of other lands was a thing not to be thought of.

" A course which ran counter to deeply rooted prejudices of fathers and brothers was necessarily very difficult to put in hand. And it must not be forgotten that there is a certain wisdom in many national habits. They have not grown rapidly or slightly. To a certain extent they are often a safeguard against grave national faults. The fathers of Egypt who distrusted the educational project were justified in fearing too much liberty for their daughters. That, if it comes, must come gradually.

And with it, too, there must be a change in the young men of the land. There was much, however, that the girls could be taught for their mental, moral and physical benefit, even if the harem existence were to continue interminably unbroken.

"Schools were opened in spite of difficulties. The head-mistresses and their assistants were selected with great care. Some pupils were boarders, others came by day. A course of study was mapped out including history, geography, arithmetic, geometry, brushwork and needlework. The girls took kindly to school life, which offered a delightful change after the monotony of home. The regular existence and constant work soon showed its good effect on both mind and body. Naturally matters did not progress as in an English school, where the girls have been accustomed to learn for generations. But the intelligent, contented girls who had learnt to think, to judge, to act reasonably, soon showed that the experiment was a success. Implicit obedience to those above them is inculcated at all the schools, for no Egyptian girl can have a happy home life unless she is prepared to give perfect submission to her husband or father. Perhaps as time goes on and the people of Egypt appreciate the mental development of their women folk, they will allow them to exercise their judgment, but submit to their husbands. Even so, the educated girl is now able to take up many useful household affairs, to beautify her rooms with exquisite work, to attend to the care of her health and that of her dependents, to keep her whole mansion clean and in order. This is a great advance from the days when outside finery was the only thing appreciated.

"The chief school for girls in Egypt is the Sanieh

THE MUTUAL IMPROVEMENT SOCIETY, 1909, OLD CAIRO C.M.S. SCHOOL.

C.M.S. BOYS' SCHOOL, 1909.

School and Training College. The directress until recently, Miss Johnstone, is a lady well-known and justly admired for her educational attainments, deep knowledge of the country and sound sense. The highest class of Egyptian girl is to be found here. The curriculum of the college is divided into two sections, one for those intending to become teachers giving time to geography, practice of education, theory of education, and plain sewing and cutting out, which those who do not intend to teach give to the French language. Girls enter the training college after they have finished their ordinary school education. During the second and third years they do a great deal of class teaching under observation, a mistress being always present to correct and criticise.

"Throughout school and college life outdoor sports are encouraged, but so far the pupils have not learnt to play such games as hockey very systematically. The greatest care and attention are paid to health, as is shown in such points as separate desks, foot rests (to prevent curvature of the spine), and so on. The schoolrooms are large, light and lofty, and so are the dormitories. A mistress sleeps in a little room off each dormitory. There is an isolation room in case of sudden illness. The 'cuisine' is specially selected and excellently prepared, the dishes being rather Turkish in character. Servants are kept separate from the girls, a point much appreciated by native householders, who often have reason to complain of undesirable intimacies. The quadrangular shape of the school makes it very convenient for frequent inspection by the head-mistress and her assistants. A difficulty with the upper class is the leading them to understand that domestic work is not beneath the dignity of a lady. In some cases

the knowledge that the English Queen and Princesses are clever housewives has been helpful.

"The Abbas School, with its excellent staff, ranks next to the Sanieh. The teaching is on the same lines, except that there is more practical domestic economy. The girls learn to clean out a room, to cook, and to do other useful matters. If the Egyptian girls could but know how much their health and therefore their good looks are improved by this active work they would not be reluctant to engage in it. In both this school and the Sanieh School English and French are taught, but the bulk of the work is in Arabic.

"At Boulac there is an excellent large Kuttab, an entirely Arabic school presided over by a clever and practical Frenchwoman, Mademoiselle Santa Maria. This lady has the reputation of doing each of her duties as if it were the thing she most desired, and she manages to inculcate her own spirit of willingness and interest into her pupils. The girls are all veiled and in galabeahs, the pretty national dress which enhances the particular beauty of the country's women in a way that European clothes never can do.

"They receive a simple education in Arabic and much domestic instruction. All take their turn in kitchen and laundry, and the plain sewing, as well as the fancy work, is excellent. Gardening also is a favourite pastime, although not so stated in the syllabus. It is unfortunately not possible for these girls to take posts as domestic helps, as by so doing they would injure their matrimonial chances. They come mostly from an inferior grade to those in the other named schools, but the appearance and manners of many are quite as good. One realises that the

expression 'good family' among Egyptians means often 'more money' than 'noble birth.' The girls in this school are being trained to teach in the small Arabic schools called 'kuttabs.' Of these there are eight in Cairo and four in the villages. At least 200 are wanted before the mass of the many women will enjoy the benefits of education. All these schools enjoy Government grants and are under Government inspection.

"The experiment has been tried during the last two or three years of sending special pupils to England for a period of training in a European school or college. It is doubtful if the results will be worth the expense. It is surely possible to bring to the Egyptian girl in her own country all that is necessary or desirable for her cultivation and development. If we attempt too much, if we ignore the effects of religion, heredity and climate, the result will be a hybrid—neither European nor Egyptian.

"The tendency in an English training college is to make a pet and show object of the girl from over the seas, with the very natural result that the young lady soon over-estimates her own importance. Again, the liberty enjoyed by the English girl is a thing of gradual growth. The grandmothers of the girls of to-day could never have dreamt of rushing about unchaperoned as do their descendants. To allow the Egyptian girl, with her inheritance of seclusion, to see and partake of so much freedom is surely too hasty a step. Then again, the habits of order and regularity gained so carefully in the school life are very likely to be shaken if the girl imbibes the craze for constant amusement and restlessness that is rather a fault of the damsel of to-day. The question of religion, too, must not be forgotten. A Mohammedan

girl, carefully instructed, learns among other matters that religion controls man in his hours of solitude, prevents him falling into error, and secures harmony and mutual help between men. We understand that there is no provision for the exercise of her religion during the sojourn in England, and it is not likely that she will adopt any other. Instances in which character has been improved by the loss of the devotional instinct are hard to find.

"In conclusion it is interesting to note that all the schools receive many more applications for admittance than they can possibly grant. The posts as teachers are much appreciated by the girls themselves in a land where the marriage contracts are too often binding only for a term."

This description of the work of education in Egypt would be incomplete if reference to the teaching staffs were omitted. The foreign masters and mistresses in the schools are British with few exceptions, and it would be difficult to find on the whole a more competent and conscientious body of workers. The standard is very high, most of the masters having taken a university degree, and many of them have a sound working knowledge of Arabic, which qualification the Government encourages by making special grants. They are keen on their work, and the results of the examinations are eloquent testimony to their ability and patience. The pity is there are not more of them, and that, of late, through various reasons, there have been resignations and retirements. The department is not running as smoothly as it might do, and the teachers are not without grievances. There is also unfortunately a feeling of apprehension as to the future amongst them, owing to want of confidence in the intentions of the British Govern-

ment, a feeling that has grown and become accentuated since Lord Cromer's retirement; and however able was his successor, he had not the gift of inspiring confidence in the British official in Egypt, either in the discharge of his functions of office or in his outlook for the future. A number have left in consequence rather than devote the best years of their lives to service in a country under such conditions. It is a great pity that the country is the sufferer.

Recently Egypt has directed its attention to higher education, and the Egyptian University in Cairo is the result. The University is now housed in what was formerly a cigarette factory, a very handsome building, of Moorish architecture, standing within its own grounds and quite large enough for present requirements. At the present rate of progress, for native enthusiasm to which it owed its existence has waned somewhat since its inauguration, it will be some time before its work confers much practical benefit on the people. It has received a certain amount of encouragement from foreign countries in grants of books, etc., the library by these means amounting to 10,000 books, and in 1910 the Government made its first grant of £E.2,000.

The French Government kindly proffered practical assistance in offering to receive three young Egyptians nominated by the University and to educate them gratuitously. The scheme of the governing body is to send young students to Europe for their education, who on their return will form the nucleus of a staff of professors, and twenty-four students are now studying in Europe for this purpose. Although public opinion is not as enthusiastic as it was, and as it might be, there is every reason to welcome the foundation of such an institution, which merits the

support and earnest co-operation of the Egyptian people. Cairo, it must be remembered, is also the seat of Moslem education, for here is situated the ancient University of Al Azhar, with its 12,000 Mohammedan students. But in the new University, as with many other native things in Egypt, there might with advantage be considerably less talk and much more practical earnest work. It was in this building and before a crowded international assemblage that President Roosevelt delivered his famous address, which included much useful advice to the governors and the students, honesty in administration being, he considered, of paramount importance if the University was to continue and to occupy a place among the universities of the world. The average attendance of students during 1910 was thirty. In the ladies' section the University maintained a French course of ethics and psychology, and added a series of lectures given in Arabic by two Egyptian ladies, which were largely attended. Besides these, lectures on hygiene and the care of infants were delivered by Egyptian and European doctors. It is interesting to note that in the course of lectures given exclusively for ladies in the University during 1909, of the fifty-eight lady students in attendance thirty-five were Egyptians and twenty-three Europeans.

CHAPTER V

PUBLIC SECURITY

PUBLIC security in Egypt is confined to the large towns; in the provinces it is practically non-existent. Cairo, Alexandria, Port Said and some of the big towns are policed by a well-drilled, well-organised, and well-disciplined constabulary, trained under the direction of British military officers. Outside of these towns the policing of the country is left to a kind of police militia, or body of watchmen, called ghaffirs. The authorities, whilst admitting certain shortcomings on the part of the ghaffirs, consider that on the whole they are a fairly satisfactory body of men, their chief qualification for the discharge of their responsible duties being their recommendation by local men of consequence—"notables," as your effendi loves to call them. The authorities regret the lack of discipline and training among the ghaffirs, but urge that, in the absence of police, they are useful in preventing and checking crime and in protecting private property.

The army of ghaffirs numbers approximately 45,000. They are another relic of the old régime, the survival of an ancient office, being actually the village watchmen. At night they yell out the hours, much as the watchmen of Old London used to do, the general idea being to inspire confidence in the breasts of those they arouse by this evidence of their vigilance and to intimidate evil doers. Their duties may

be said to begin and end there, as far as the public are concerned.

The confidence of the authorities in the ghaffirs as an effective provincial police force is a peculiar official attribute. It is not shared by the police, either native or foreign. On the contrary, the ghaffirs are objects of general mistrust and suspicion. They have been so frequently identified with the criminals from whose depredations they are employed to protect the peaceful householder that this distrust is not unnatural.

The police themselves have very little use for them, excepting when they actually come under police supervision and control. They are then restricted to night patrol work. This may, of course, be professional prejudice on the part of the police, but it is a prejudice which is universal throughout Egypt, except in the minds of those authorities who insist on retaining them.

The only reason which can be advanced for their retention is the one of economy. They are much cheaper than police, and for this reason alone the Government adopts the extraordinary attitude of spending money on 45,000 ghaffirs, who are notoriously inefficient, rather than spend the same sum on even a much less number of police. The Government of Egypt is responsible for a few extraordinary things, and this is one of them.

There is now on trial a scheme providing for the reorganisation of the ghaffir force. The force in future will be recruited from volunteers, who agree to serve in their own villages for three years under the same rules of discipline as are applied to the police. As a further inducement the men, though liable to conscription, will not be called upon to

THE EGYPTIAN UNIVERSITY, CAIRO: GENERAL VIEW.

serve in the army, and the Government is hopeful that this inducement to patriotic evasion of duty will cause recruits to come forward in their thousands, so that eligible men may be chosen. Their numbers and their rates of pay will in future be fixed by the new provincial councils, so that each council will run its own ghaffir force. For the training of these ghaffirs 51 officers and 150 non-commissioned officers have been or will be obtained from the Egyptian Army, and most of the officers will be eventually attached to the force as inspectors, each one having a district in which there are 500 to 600 ghaffirs on duty. The new ghaffirs will undergo a course of training and instruction a few hours per month, and it is refreshing to note in the last report of the Agent-General that "the new system will undoubtedly have the result of changing the night ghaffirs from a useless and inefficient rabble into a force presenting some elements of discipline." The night ghaffirs number 23,805 men, of whom 4,614 have completed their training. The balance, with the army of day ghaffirs, remain presumably "a useless and inefficient rabble," maintained at considerable public expense, and useless for any practical purpose.

Why the Government should decide on perpetuating such a force it is difficult to understand, except on the general plea of economy, but surely one efficient policeman is worth at least half-a-dozen inefficient ghaffirs.

The total strength of the police force in Egypt is 397 officers (of whom 60 are Europeans) and 7,727 non-commissioned officers and men, an increase of 18 officers and 642 men over 1909.

The whole of the police force are now volunteers,

who enlist voluntarily after a period of military service. The native officers are trained in the Police School at Cairo, which is under the direction of a British officer, with Egyptian masters.

In 1910 provision was made for an increase in the forces at Cairo and Alexandria, and for thirteen new outposts in the provinces.

Having served their time as soldiers, the police are a well-disciplined body of men, of excellent physique, and quite capable of discharging their duties with efficiency and energy among the native population. If they are at all deficient in intelligence it is due to the fact that they are recruited entirely from one class, the agricultural labourer, who is balloted for military service.

They certainly look well, are neatly uniformed, and inspire respect among the natives. The mounted police in particular are a fine serviceable body of men, of more than the average intelligence of their class, but among them is a stiffening element of Europeans. These latter are chiefly Italians, who have served as carabineers in Italy, and alone can live comfortably on the pay offered. There are a few Englishmen, enlisted from British cavalry regiments, but these are diminishing owing to the smallness of the pay compared with the heavy expenses of living in the country.

Every effort is made to improve the intelligence of the native policeman, who frequently, when on patrol duty, is accosted by European visitors, and they expect him to answer numerous requests for information, which, considering the number of European languages spoken in Egypt, would be more than a tax upon the intelligence and resources of a London constable.

Visitors to Cairo are frequently struck with the magnificent physique of the Egyptian policeman, and it may be admitted that in this respect he does not fall short of the standard which people in England exact from their own force. But there the comparison ends, for the impassive, even stern, solid demeanour of the Cairo policeman covers little of the tact and commonsense, so peculiarly the heritage of the London constable. The majority of Egyptian policemen are illiterate, and such equipment as a note-book and pencil is merely a useless encumbrance to them on beat duty. Yet in spite of this lack of education (perhaps, indeed, on account of it), the normal Egyptian has a wholesome fear of his police; and the rough-and-ready methods by which the latter summarily settle disputes are by no means badly suited to the people with whom they have to deal.

It must not, however, be inferred that the Egyptian Government view with indifference the mental deficiency of their police force. Constant attempts are made to raise its morals, and it may be said with truth that few Egyptian institutions undergo an administrative reconstruction more frequently. In these changes, in fact, sometimes little is left of the old organisation but the military basis on which the Egyptian police invariably has rested. Its officers are given military rank, and wear a uniform closely resembling that of the army; most of the men have spent five years' service in the army, and all are subject to military law. Indeed, the last is a necessity, seeing that the men are entrusted with rifles and ammunition.

While admitting that these conditions may not conduce to intelligent police work, it is fair to add

that strenuous efforts have been made within recent years to improve the technical education of both officers and men. The credit of making the initial attempt must be accorded to Lord Kitchener, who some twenty years ago filled the position of Inspector-General of Police. He realised early that little could be done to improve the police until its officers received some rudimentary instruction in their duties. Other work called him away, and it was not until 1901 that the present Police School was formed. Its beginning was very modest. Less than a dozen young men received a few lessons in elementary law. But the seed was sown, and a few years later a large sum of money was expended in constructing barracks in Abbassia (a desert suburb of Cairo) as a permanent home for the Police School.

To-day 100 cadet officers receive instruction in it, covering a period of four years, in all technical branches of police officers' education. They leave the school equipped with a sound knowledge of the penal and civil codes, criminal investigation, Mohammedan law, etc. Their physical training also is not neglected. They become proficient in drill, gymnastics, and riding. A cadet pays a nominal sum per annum as school fees. He is exceedingly well fed and comfortably housed; but he is expected to apply himself seriously to work (nine hours a day), and discipline is maintained with great strictness. The school also attempts to give some instruction in the higher duties of police work to certain men selected from those already serving in the force whose intelligence marks them as individuals likely to profit by such training. Soudanese who are to perform desert police work and camel patrols are sent to the school to be trained as well as conscript

fellaheen, intended for such positions as escorts of prisoners, guards over treasuries, and other minor but important police duties.

At a recent visit made by His Highness the Khedive, the Police School numbered 450 rifles on parade. His Highness was pleased to compliment the school upon its drill, and the cadets upon their physique. The improvement in the latter is certainly remarkable. Measurements are taken in October and May, and the average increase of weight during that period throughout the school is seldom less than 10 lbs. The cadets are dressed in khaki and puttees, and, of course, wear the tarbush. All the instruction is given in Arabic. Indeed, the only Englishman connected with the school is its director, Major P. G. Elgood, late Devonshire Regiment and Egyptian Army.

Attached to the headquarters of the police forces or gouvernorats, as they are called, is a detective department, devoted to the detection of crime. A technical bureau is now in process of formation, with a view to training a staff in the scientific methods employed in other countries for criminal investigations.

According to the last report a useful measure for diminishing crime has been the formation throughout the country of local committees of arbitration or conciliation, to which disputes among the rural population arising out of private animosities can be referred, either by parties concerned or by the authorities. In the short time during which this scheme has been in operation over 900 disputes or feuds have been settled, at all events temporarily. As private animosities and revenge are responsible for nearly 40 per cent. of the crimes committed in

the provinces, this measure cannot fail, in the official mind, to exercise a considerable effect upon the criminality of the country.

The number of offences coming under criminal jurisdiction in 1910 amounted to 154,455, against 157,207 in 1909, and 149,163 in 1908. Of these, in 1910, 776 were for murder and 509 for attempted murder. There were 559 cases of arson. The following table gives the number of cases disposed of by the courts during 1908–9–10 :—

	1908.	1909.	1910.
Markaz Tribunals . . .	2,536	7,060	16,140
Summary Tribunals . . .	149,736	186,942	179,383
Central Tribunals . . .	8,868	12,485	11,941
Court of Appeal . . .	1,159	976	1,079

In considering the above published statistics of crime, which in themselves are heavy enough considering the size of the population, it must be remembered that these are solely the recorded crimes which are dealt with by the authorities. Egypt would be a comparatively happy country if all its crimes were included within these figures, but there is probably no other country in the world with any pretensions to civilisation where so many crimes are committed and are unrecorded and undiscovered by the authorities. Crime in the provinces, instead of diminishing, is undeniably increasing, and that increase has been very noticeable during the last three years.

The primitive arrangements in the provinces for the prevention of crime and for the maintenance of law and order are radically at fault. Where there is one crime dealt with by the police or the

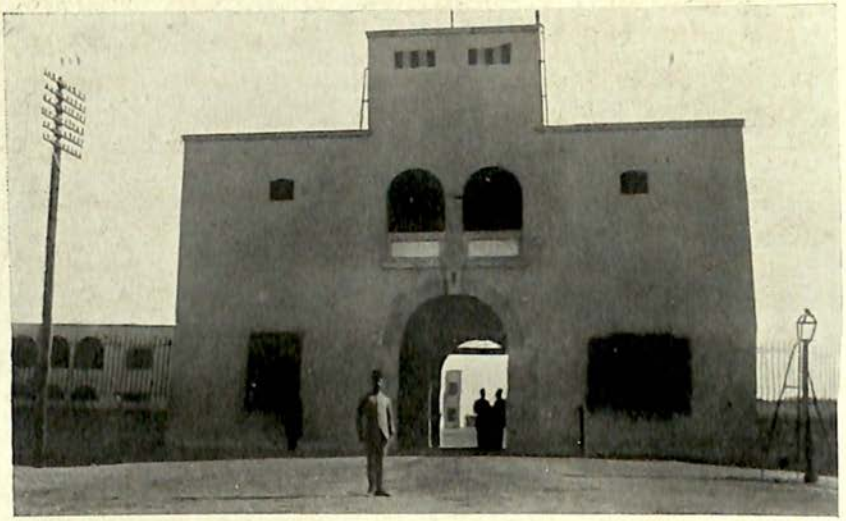
provincial authorities it is no exaggeration to state that five go unnoticed by the authorities. Moreover, the percentage of undetected crimes is very large indeed, much larger than the cases in which crimes are proved and convictions follow.

In the provinces the most daring crimes are committed daily under the noses of the omdehs (the village headmen), the mamours (subordinate headmen having the rank of majors and directors of police, and ghaffirs), and ghaffirs and frequently persons are murdered with weapons taken calmly from the ghaffirs, perhaps lent, according to Oriental custom, for a consideration. The reports of these crimes seldom find their way into the columns of the foreign newspapers in Egypt, but those who are able to read the contributions of the provincial correspondents, in the native press, will be able to form some conception of the shocking conditions of general lawlessness which prevail.

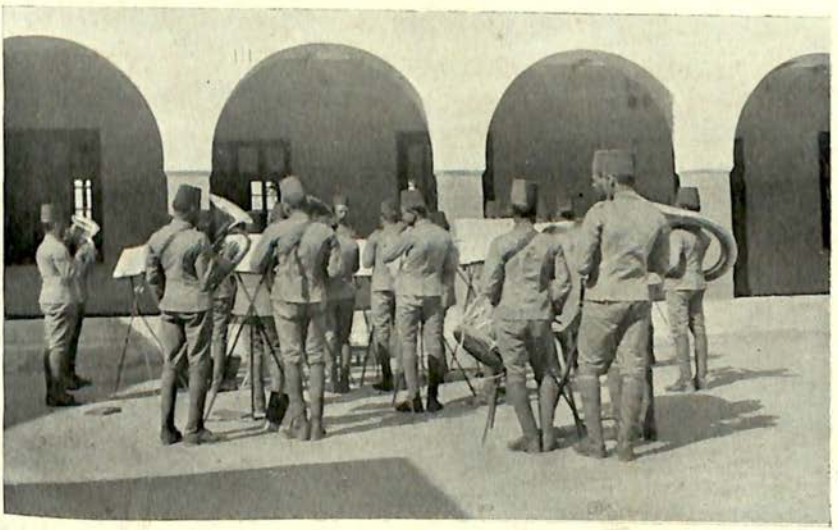
Practically every second paragraph, as a rule, has reference to shooting outrages, or murders, robberies with violence, sanguinary family feuds, or the uprooting of crops. In Cairo itself, largely policed as it is, crime is more prevalent than it should be, but for this the low-class foreign population is mainly responsible. Italians, Greeks and others are now, according to the laws of their own lands, forbidden to carry firearms and other murderous weapons, but such laws are, for some inexplicable reason, winked at by their consular authorities in Egypt. The only excuse can be that the consuls do not feel justified in disarming their countrymen under existing conditions, and until the British Government shall institute such a policy of firmness in administering the country as to

guarantee the impossibility of a native rising. Further, Europeans maintain that as they cannot rely upon police protection, they must be able to protect themselves. The administration in Egypt is slack in not demanding that a foreign rascal, if immune from Egyptian laws, shall not be immune from his own laws, although he confers on Egypt the questionable benefit of his presence. It is time Egypt ceased to be the modern Alsatia of Europe. But in the provinces the persons who commit crime are mostly natives, who are amenable, when, as sometimes happens, they are captured, to the laws of the country.

Sir Eldon Gorst, in his report for 1909, in alluding to the unsatisfactory state of public security in the provinces, and the great difficulties which lie in the way of finding an effectual remedy, refers to the new remedy of deportation to penal settlements in the Dakhla Oasis. He says: "Its main feature is that, under certain circumstances, and with guarantees which are sufficient to prevent abuses being committed in practice, measures, to a certain extent restrictive of liberty, can be applied to professional blackmailers and other dangerous characters without their having necessarily been convicted by a regular tribunal of a definite offence under the penal code. The principal justification of this step is the difficulty, amounting sometimes to an impossibility, of obtaining convictions in such cases. The European judicial system which has been introduced into this country depends for its success on the co-operation of law-abiding citizens in the repression of crime. In Egypt, as has been frequently pointed out, the mass of the population, partly from fear of vengeance if the accused are acquitted, and partly from a



GATE OF POLICE SCHOOL, ABBASSIA.



POLICE SCHOOL: THE BAND.

From photos by Major Elgood.

hereditary disinclination to be involved in judicial proceedings, even in the comparatively harmless character of witness, are unwilling to give evidence, especially in cases where well-known dangerous characters are implicated. Under these circumstances, the most notorious malefactors frequently escape punishment and are encouraged by this immunity to persevere in their criminal practices.

"The conditions of residence in the appointed locality have no penal character, and resemble those which have frequently been suggested in the case of compulsory labour colonies for able-bodied vagrants. Persons there confined are allotted a residence, to which they can bring their families, and are allowed and encouraged to earn their livelihood in any way they please. Further, those who have no means of subsistence are provided with suitable employment, for which they receive remuneration."

Up to the end of 1909 the number of criminals who had their residence fixed in the Dakhla Oasis was 272, and 275 were sent to the Kharga Oasis in 1910, the settlement still being in process of formation.

The result of the operation of this law was regarded by the late Agent-General as, on the whole, satisfactory, "having resulted in the temporary segregation of some 550 of the most notoriously dangerous characters in the country."

Although it is the essential duty of the Government to punish crime, it is of infinitely greater importance to prevent it. Before Mr. Matchell, the former English Adviser to the Ministry of the Interior, left Egypt two years ago, he devoted considerable time and attention to the subject, and was supposed to have evolved a scheme which

would tend to improve matters materially. No improvement had, however, been shown, and the new law to exile bad characters which is capable of much good is also capable in the hands of vicious and dishonest officials of much evil. In principle it is unjust, and its danger is that it may be used to the detriment of the liberties of the subject by unscrupulous persons in authority who have purposes to serve. One is aware what family feuds mean in Egypt, and how open many of its officials are to the influence of persons of wealth and affluence. This law is a method to be exercised, if necessary at all, with the greatest caution, for one familiar with Oriental life is aware of the inconceivable extent to which perjury is committed in the native courts, even before British magistrates—in India, for instance—for the purposes of revenge. It is irregular, and, in principle, illegal, and for these reasons the new law is condemned by many British and Egyptians who are mindful of the purposes for which it can be used by unscrupulous persons. It has been suggested that omdehs should be dispensed with, and magistrates appointed for groups of villages; this would improve matters, no doubt, but you have first to select and train your magistrates. It is a question of character as much as of knowledge of law. An honest but ignorant omdeh is better than a dishonest magistrate.

Several remedies suggest themselves for coping with the prevalence of crime in Egypt in addition to the new exile law. One of the most essential reforms needed is an effective system for the registration of arms. Dealers in firearms in Egypt are supposed to be licensed, and to be under some sort of police supervision, but it is very evident that

this supervision is not all that it should be, for even in Cairo it is open to anyone to purchase any weapon he chooses.

Again there is in Egypt a large miscellaneous population made up of low-class Europeans and hybrids of European extraction who contribute only too largely to the crime statistics, and owe their ability to do so chiefly to the facility with which they can obtain firearms, and that description of knife which figures in so many stabbing affairs, the knife made for that particular purpose. Possession of a weapon naturally leads to recourse to that weapon on the slightest provocation when the owner is of mixed, untamed blood, and in not taking every precaution to check the importation and sale of such weapons the authorities must be held as indirectly contributing, either through negligence and indifference, or for lack of a proper appreciation of the evil, to the returns of crime. It is a pity, for instance, that, whereas under the new Italian law no man in Italy is permitted to carry a weapon, in Egypt no Italian seems to be without one. Although the idea that foreigners should be allowed to carry arms in Egypt for their own protection may be a very reasonable one in theory, it fails utterly to justify itself in practice, and the net result of permitting it is the encouragement of crime.

Other Eastern countries have experienced similar difficulties to those of Egypt in dealing with the suppression of crime, but they have mostly surmounted them—the Malay Peninsula, for instance. The principal plan employed there has been to aim at the prevention of crime. This can be done in Egypt by the Government passing an Arms Act which will make it an offence for any person to carry or

possess any kind of deadly weapon without a licence, and give to the police or officers in the provinces the right to search premises wherein weapons may possibly be concealed. Most of the murders are committed with firearms, and in the village fights guns appear to be the principal weapons employed. It would not be difficult to enforce such a law providing the police are sufficiently numerous and the provincial officials trustworthy.

Recently, as the result of newspaper criticism, the Ministry of the Interior issued a circular to all armourers forbidding sales of firearms to any without a licence. It also notified the public that all persons possessing arms and having no licence must apply for a permit. But much more than this is needed if the Government intends to check the rapid increase of crime in Egypt. The Government must be absolutely strict and must impress upon the public that it is in earnest. It is not a matter to be tampered or played with. A day never passes in Egypt without a dozen shooting outrages being recorded in which the assassins invariably escape. The law of Egypt says now that no man can carry arms without a licence. It is the bounden duty of the Government to see that law enforced. It is furthermore of no use for the Government to issue an order in Cairo and quietly sit down expecting it to be obeyed, as it is in the habit of doing. The authorities in Egypt retain the Oriental weakness of sitting indolently cross-legged on the administrative cushion. The system of taking things for granted in Egypt prevails far too much, and it is the duty of the officials to see that the law is enforced.

The armourers should be compelled to furnish a list of stocks and sales, to be checked by the police

weekly; the omdehs should see that notices are served on every villager, and should be empowered with warrants to search suspected premises, along with the police or mamours. Licences should generally be restricted and persons having arms without permits severely punished. This law should come into force at a specified date, and those who then disobey it can be regarded as persons of evil intent. It needs only firmness on the part of the Government and vigilance on the part of the police and ghaffirs. The population of Egypt ought to be disarmed, and if this were done crime would be appreciably less. At present any one appears to be privileged to shoot his neighbour and to get away scot-free.

The root of the evil is, of course, the ignorance of the native population, and in this connection it is interesting to quote a letter sent to me by Dr. Mansur M. Rifat, who was until recently one of the leaders of the Egyptian Nationalist party in Cairo, and one of the few Nationalists who have the real practical interests of his country at heart. The letter is important in showing the views of an influential native on the subject, and is an honest attempt on his part to get at the root of the evil. The letter was published by me at his request under the title of an open letter to Chitty Bey (who succeeded Mr. Matchell as Adviser to the Ministry of the Interior) on "Crime in Egypt."

"SIR,—With reference to crime in Egypt will you allow me to show you how much crime of every description is widespread in the provinces, and, correspondingly, how much the safety and interests of the public are suffering severely.

"The points which I am about to mention deserve your greatest attention and consideration, and I am

glad to record that the natives have the fullest confidence in you and in your abilities to check these deplorable crimes and outrages, to protect their interests and to promote their welfare. These are the following points :—

" (1) The ignorance of the public.

" (2) Disharmony among police officials, omdehs (mayors), and legal officials (*i.e.* the Parquet).

" (3) The courts.

" Leaving aside police reform and the increase in the number of ghaffirs for further discussion, let us now dwell for a moment on the ignorance of the public. No one will deny the fact that this is the most important factor in the prevalence of crime in Egypt. Above all, ignorance is at the very depth and root of crime. Yet it is a very difficult problem to solve at the present time, as it needs energetic efforts and quick and radical action. But a great deal can be done to enlighten the masses of ignorant farmers. How ? We cannot open schools for all of them. We are not in possession of sufficient money to educate them; still we can do something. We may send out some reliable, honest and conscientious persons and scatter them throughout the country to teach the farmers 'union, humanity, truthfulness, and kindness, devoid of any politics or religion,' to set many examples to them, impressing upon them their duties towards themselves, their fellow countrymen, the Government and the community.

" If we start this very useful step, which may seem to be very difficult and entirely out of place, I am quite sure the result will in a little while soon be very encouraging and gratifying.

" The second point, which is not less in importance, is the existing fact that many of the police

officials, omdehs (mayors), and legal officials, do not work in harmony together. They do not try to help one another. Instead of uniting faithfully and sincerely like one person, and realising they have only one duty common to them all to perform, and that is to look after the interests of the public, they, unfortunately, waste much valuable time in foolish argument and unnecessary questioning.

"The third and the last of the questions is the position of the Courts in the matter. No one doubts that the majority of the judges are honest, conscientious and learned men, but the trouble with some of them is that they are full of sympathy; they think, too, they are dealing with educated, straightforward persons, not with 'crooks' and uncivilised ones in most of the cases.

"They never pass their judgment on circumstantial evidence. They ask the Parquet (the legal department which conducts the prosecutions) to produce the persons who have actually witnessed the acts of the accused. How difficult it is to comply with such request!

"Eighty cases out of a hundred that are being tried now result in acquittal. Whose fault is it, then? It lies either in the preliminary investigation and those who have conducted it or in the final judgment and those who have passed it.

"Consequently, many of the crimes remain undetected and unpunished; the guilty person is acquitted and escapes free.

"When he goes out the first thing he will do is to avenge himself on those who have first reported him to the authorities, and second, on those who have willingly testified against him on the witness stand.

"He commits many a similar crime, and those who were ready to uphold the truth and who were willing to testify on such occasion now hesitate and are afraid to assist the Government in its hard work.

"In my opinion, in a country where the moral training is almost nil, and where the majority of the people are uneducated, they should be severely dealt with. The law must take its fullest course with criminals. No mercy should be shown to them; circumstantial evidence and the record of the accused must occupy the first place in passing judgment in many of the criminal cases. This might look ridiculous in a civilised country, but in a country like Egypt, with an increased number of crimes daily, this method is amply justified. I might sum up the real cure of these people in the following:—

"1. Deportation of all suspicious characters and those with a bad record. (This is now being done.)

"2. The administration of more severe punishment in Courts.

"3. The whipping of criminals.

"Some one might protest against returning to the practice of whipping after its abolition years ago, but I think it is necessary to apply its use in Egypt, restricting its application to those wretches who make life in this country extremely miserable and dangerous."

It may be here pointed out that whipping is still employed in the Egyptian police force in cases of discipline, and it may be argued that if it is lawful and expedient to whip erring policemen, it is no breach of civilisation in Egypt to apply the whip to incorrigible criminals.

Undoubtedly, as pointed out in the foregoing, a large number of prosecutions fail through friction

between the police and the Parquet, the latter being responsible for the legal preparation of the prosecution. There are overlapping and want of sympathy between the two departments. Also the judges should deal with the cases brought before them more on the lines followed in India, where perjury is a fine art and a weapon of offence with which to wipe off old scores by means of the Courts. There a judge gives due consideration to circumstances and the known character of the accused, possessing as he does a full knowledge of native characteristics and methods, which he applies to a solution of the case before him. This is needed in Egypt for the reasons mentioned.

It will thus be seen that although the British Government may claim credit justly for certain civilising works in Egypt it cannot yet arrogate to itself the name of having succeeded in relieving the heavily burdened country of its terrible crime bill. Very little is heard of it because in the provinces the people have apparently settled down to regard such lawlessness as the normal condition of things, and the foreign press in Egypt would grow weary of publishing, day after day, the reports of crime which occur throughout the country. It should be the duty of the British Government in the interests of humanity and civilisation, apart from the question of its own reputation, to insist on the suppression of crime being vigorously taken in hand by the authorities, a policy which, if it were once initiated, should be continued, and not dropped as so many things are in that lotus-eating land.

This then brings us to the final suggestions, and these are the total disbandment of the ghaffir force, because of its utter incapability and uselessness, and the enlargement of the police to form a con-

stabulary for the whole of the country similar in principle to the Imperial constabulary of Japan, where there is one force for the whole of the country. The feature of the ghaffir Act is that it specially invites local men to become ghaffirs of their own villages, the idea of the Japanese being the contrary; and there are evident reasons, especially in Egypt, why a local labourer should not enlist as a local watchman or village policeman, for bribery and baksheesh unfortunately will continue to flourish in Egypt for many generations to come, as the most pronounced attributes of the native character.

With an efficient native constabulary, foot and mounted, the inspectors to be a mixture of Egyptian, Turkish and British (the latter non-commissioned military officers selected for their character and ability), acting under British superintendents—army officers, as at present—a radical change would speedily be brought about which would do inestimable good to the country. It will, of course, be argued that this is not possible on the ground of expense, but in view of the cost of maintaining "a useless and inefficient rabble," to give it its official title, of 45,000 ghaffirs, "to be paid at the ordinary police rate of pay," it is difficult to realise that an efficient police force of 30,000 officers and men could not be maintained for the same amount, or with very little increase. Crime in Egypt has reached such a stage that neither the British advisers nor the native authorities are able to cope with it, and reform, as with other departments, must, necessarily, come from without.

Since, however, the last report was published, Lord Kitchener has arrived on the scene, and as in his early days the creation of the Egyptian police

formed his special work, he may be expected to speedily reintroduce such reforms as he originally instituted which were dropped after his retirement from the direction of the force. The army of ghaffirs will undoubtedly give way to an efficient provincial constabulary under British officers, who will speedily ensure public protection and the suppression of crime. The nucleus of such a force can readily be obtained amongst those who have completed their military training.

CHAPTER VI

PUBLIC HEALTH AND SANITATION

It is conceivably a difficult task for any Government charged with the reform of an ancient Oriental country, whose people are appallingly filthy in their habits and surroundings, and where domestic hygiene and the elements of sanitation are unknown, to initiate and continue public health administration, when that Government is perforce dependent upon the consent of fifteen Powers being obtained to the introduction of legislation instituting public health measures. It is admittedly a task most difficult of accomplishment even in itself to teach an ancient people the need of observing the elementary principles of hygiene when they have never recognised the need of cleanliness in their homes, habits and environment.

It is almost impossible to expect any sanitary department to enforce sanitary rules and regulations in villages, towns and cities densely populated for the most part, which were built with absolute disregard for all known laws protecting the public health of the community from the evils of overcrowding and disease.

We are officially reminded at frequent intervals by the British Agent, that such is the position in which the Government of Egypt is placed to-day. Plague may continue, as it has continued for the last ten years

in Egypt; conditions may bring about the sudden visitation of another epidemic of cholera, more terrible and devastating than the last; small-pox, typhoid and numerous other deadly diseases may scourge the country with their annual outbreaks; the death-rate of Egypt, in the comprehensive description of the *Lancet*—whose special commissioner recently visited the country—may continue to be "scandalous"; but, if we are to accept the official attitude of those responsible for the regeneration of Egypt, nothing can be done to ameliorate substantially the prevalence of disease in that country until it assumes a widespread epidemic form of some specific type, because of the necessity for international consent being secured to earnest measures aiming at its prevention and repression, and the clerical trouble involved in circularising the Powers to obtain that consent to such measures as are proposed by the Egyptian administration.

In these days of frequent international conferences under the cross of Geneva, when every country co-operates in the common task of preventing the spread of disease, and sends forth its ablest commissioners to check the ravages of plague in China, sleeping sickness in Central Africa, and devotes substantial sums to the investigation of little understood diseases which threaten common humanity, we are asked to believe that the want of an efficient and ineffective public health department in Egypt is due to the absence of the necessary authority from the fifteen Powers concerned, which the Government of Egypt is still unable to secure.

In Egypt, a country permeated with disease, filth and vermin, public health administration, like public security, is practically non-existent.

Great Britain, since 1882, has charged herself with the regeneration of Egypt, and to-day, after all these years of occupation and the progress of the work of reform, the public are asked to believe that neither the British nor the Egyptian Governments has been able or is now in a position to secure the consent of the Capitulation Powers to the introduction of a comprehensive and effective system of public health administration.

Is it conceivable that any Power would charge itself with the protection of an Oriental country for the sole purpose of regenerating its government and civilising the masses of its people without the privilege or right to introduce adequate measures providing for the prevention of diseases in that country, especially when the habits of the populace and the absence of sanitation provide in themselves the surest means for the origin and propagation of every deadly disease known to medical science ?

Considering the proximity of Egypt to Europe, is it not more likely that, apart altogether from humanitarian motives, which in themselves would forbid any Power withholding its consent, a selfish desire for personal protection would influence that Power to agree unhesitatingly to any effective measures which would constitute a safeguard, by enabling Egypt to cleanse and purify itself, thus preventing the possibility of its becoming and continuing to be a probable source of contagion to surrounding countries ?

Further, does not Egypt itself, as the gateway to Europe, owe a duty in this respect to those countries to whose support and sympathy it is so much indebted ?

The Capitulations are responsible for many things

in Egypt, and there is more than a reasonable suspicion that their assistance has been invoked not infrequently by the British Agent and the Government of Egypt to cover official reluctance to move forward in the path of progress. Their existence can always be stated as a permanent excuse, and as they apply to fifteen Powers it is not an easy matter to charge any one of these Powers with being the obstructing party to reform and progress. This alone suggests itself as being a not unlikely reason why the authorities in Egypt never seem to hesitate to make use of such an excuse.

It is, nevertheless, remarkable that when the Government of Egypt decides upon a certain measure, for the introduction of which the consent of the Capitulation Powers is necessary, these Powers, once they are assured it is for the well-being of the country, seldom withhold their consent. Recent instances of their ready acquiescence may be mentioned in the new drainage scheme for Cairo, which is now being carried out, and the recent Press Law, which was sprung upon the country and carried into effect in a few weeks.

The Capitulation dodge is played out!

The actual reason for the extraordinary apathy of the authorities in Egypt—headed by the late British Agent—in regard to the introduction of an adequate public health administration is probably due to financial reasons and not to any diplomatic opposition. The Government is content to neglect this vital matter, considering perhaps that the purification of Egypt and the adoption of measures may remain as they are for the present until in years to come it can secure a sufficient surplus to enable it to take the matter in hand and carry out

the work effectively. The foreign Powers apparently do not object, and there is no diplomatic reason for present action.

That the authorities do not feel particularly concerned on the subject is evidenced by the annual reports of the late British Agent, who usually devoted a very small portion of his report to public health; and ignored the necessity for reference to preventative measures. These latter are perhaps necessary, for outside the admirable work of the Quarantine Board, which ever since the last cholera epidemic has carefully supervised the pilgrim traffic to and from Mecca, preventative measures in Egypt cannot be said to exist.

It would, however, be interesting to learn whether the Government of Egypt has ever sought to obtain the consent of the Capitulation Powers to a general measure for the introduction of a public health administration, and whether that consent has been withheld. It is safe to assume that no such application has ever been made and the risk of a refusal never courted.

A striking feature of the annual report of the British Agent is that the mortality returns for the country are unpublished. The death-rate of Egypt is appalling! A popular impression prevails in Europe that Egypt is a very healthy country, and for this, and climatic reasons, it is a favourite resort of invalids. The climate of Egypt for five months of the year is an ideal one, and given immunity from infectious diseases, it would be difficult to find a better health resort for many complaints during the winter months. The average visitor is fortunately oblivious of the many risks run, though not a few have paid the penalty.

MISSON HOSPITAL AT OLD CAIRO.

CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY'S BOYS' DAY AND BOARDING SCHOOL.

In Cairo, and all the towns of Egypt for that matter, there are no modern systems of drainage. Cesspits are everywhere in use and these are cleared very irregularly. A certain amount of sewage is conveyed away by the infiltration water passing under Cairo within a few metres of the surface. The subsoil of Cairo is saturated with sewage.

The new drainage work in Cairo has, however, commenced, and similar sewage undertakings are shortly to be commenced at Alexandria, designed by the municipal engineer, and at Port Said. It may here be interesting to refer to the scheme for the drainage of Cairo.

It is now some time ago since the drainage scheme for the city of Cairo and its suburbs was approved by the Council of Ministers, and sanctioned by the Powers, for the taxation of Europeans was necessary. The scheme, when completed, will make the capital of Egypt, in its drainage arrangements, equal to any city in the world, and this in a city of 650,000 inhabitants, of whom 500,000 are natives, and where modern sanitation is at present unknown. The latest inventions of modern sanitary engineering science will replace the present unsatisfactory methods of sewage disposal. Many marvellous engineering works have been accomplished in Egypt since the British first occupied the country, but it is doubtful if any undertaking has been carried out elsewhere approaching in magnitude that now in progress in Cairo.

The figures indicating the cost of the installation of the undertaking alone are eloquent—namely, £E.1,500,000. But Egypt is now famous for its costly and immense engineering works. Notwithstanding the magnitude of the scheme and the many

intricate local difficulties to be surmounted, there is, from an engineering point of view, one supreme point of satisfaction, and that is that the engineer has been able to start from zero. He has not had to perfect an obsolete or to enlarge an unsuitable system inadequate for the city's needs: he starts from nothing and is thus enabled to introduce the most up-to-date system known to sanitary science. It is claimed for the Cairo drainage scheme that for this important reason it will be the most complete drainage undertaking ever carried out.

Even ventilating pipes or shafts will be discarded, for the air in the sewers will be drawn to one point by powerful suction fans, where it will be purified.

The first work of the Controller-General, after studying the city and its needs, was to produce a preliminary project before proceeding further. To arrive at a final and a practicable plan which could meet with the approval of the Council of Ministers no less than eleven schemes were drafted with great trouble, care and consideration. The eleventh scheme was the one finally decided upon.

Before its acceptance by the council it was submitted to the Director of Public Health and Sir William Garstin, the eminent engineer, and met with their entire approval.

The first work comprises engineers' quarters at Port Sahel, sewage purification works for the city of Cairo, surface water drainage for the city of Cairo, main collector, sewerage of Zeitoun and suburbs and rising main. To safeguard the public the competition for these tenders was limited to firms who have carried out works of a similar class of the aggregate value of £E.300,000 at least during the last ten years. This qualification is unnecessary in

the other contract which calls for rising mains outside the city. The principal contract has fallen to a British firm.

The sewage of Cairo will be conveyed by main to Khankah, which has been selected as the most suitable site for the purification works and sewage farm. The distance is fifteen miles from Cairo, and the works will be situated in the desert, a beautiful level plain about two kilometres to the south of the lunatic asylum. The sewage farm will possess 1,600 acres and will be far away from any habitations.

Some conception of the magnitude of the work may be realised from the fact that for these two contracts 108 plans were prepared, of which 50,000 copies were lithographed by the Survey Department. There will be not less than 300 miles of drainage piping. Millions of special bricks will be used, and these will be made in Egypt and so benefit local enterprises. It is the desire of the authorities to keep as much work as possible in the country.

The actual work was commenced in September 1910. Much fear has been expressed that the excavations of the sewage-soaked soil of Cairo for the laying of the drains will entail much sickness, but this point, with that of the percolation of the soil in certain districts by water, has been carefully considered and is being satisfactorily dealt with.

In the report dated February 22, 1908, which Sir William Garstin submitted to the Council of Ministers, approving of the eleventh scheme proposed by the Controller-General, he states: "During the last twenty years the matter has from time to time engaged the attention of the Government, and more than one project has been submitted to it. For financial and other reasons all these schemes were

abandoned, and it was not until 1906 that a decision was taken to proceed afresh with the necessary studies and to prepare a final project for the drainage of the town and its suburbs.

"It was decided by the Council of Ministers that the best plan to follow was to obtain the services of an expert of proved capacity, and to definitely engage him both for the preparation of the project and for the superintendence of its execution when approved.

"It was also considered that this expert should be given full opportunity to study the special conditions existing in Cairo city for at least one year before he was asked to present a project of any kind.

"The expert selected for the post was Mr. Carkeet James, a sanitary engineer whose fitness for the post was undeniable, and who had successfully carried out the drainage of the city of Bombay.

"Mr. James has now been at work for more than one year and a half, and has devoted his entire time to the study of problems connected with the drainage of the city.

"I think he has produced an eminently satisfactory project."

Mr. Carkeet James, M.I.C.E., F.R.S.I., F.R.M.S., made his reputation as a sanitary engineer expert in India, being engineer-in-charge of the special Drainage Branch of the Bombay Municipality. In leaving India for Egypt he followed in the successful track of Lord Cromer, Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff and Sir William Willcock, for Egypt has drawn heavily upon India for men who have re-created that country. As a sanitary engineering expert his reputation is well established, not only in India, but in the Far

East, and no engineer stands higher in experience of Eastern sanitation. Such is the officer who initiated the drainage scheme for Cairo and who is pledged by his reputation to see it through to a successful completion.

In 1909 the *Lancet* dispatched a special sanitary commissioner to Cairo, who made very exhaustive investigations into the sanitation and public health, and he contributed his impressions in the form of special articles to his journal. It is interesting to quote his remarks concerning a visit to the *hammams*, or baths, of Cairo :—

"Of the 600 cartloads of rubbish collected in a day the baths purchase 189 loads. This would be an excellent thing if the rubbish was at once placed in the furnaces that warm the water for the baths and consumed. But under the pretext that if rained the refuse would not be dry enough to burn, the managers of the baths are allowed to store a sufficient supply for at least a fortnight. In reality they often take in enough to last several months, and such a vast accumulation of very foul refuse creates a great nuisance. It must also be borne in mind that the baths are not in outlying parts, but on the contrary, are distributed all over the city, and are more especially to be found in the districts where the population is most dense. My first visit was to the largest and best hammam in Cairo. A narrow street conducted me to the back of the premises, and there I had to descend into sombre and sinister regions, stepping on all kinds of indescribable things, slimy and slippery or hard and gritty by turns. And sometimes a twining thing, a piece of wire or the hoop of a broken barrel would get between my feet or grasp my ankles and threaten

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to trip me up. We passed by narrow winding passages. There might have been stairs, but they could not be seen or felt, for the space between the steps is choked up with the dirt and refuse which had been dropped and trodden into them, so that the stairways were converted into inclined planes.

"Ascending I reached the roofless floor of a ruined house. There seemed to be two or three dilapidated houses just behind the bath, and their roofless rooms were filled many feet deep with all the refuse brought up from the scavengers' carts. Dust-besmirched wretched men groped their way about, carrying bags full of this rubbish from the scavengers' carts to these storerooms, or from the storerooms to the furnace below. There were likewise many loiterers, and it was difficult to conceive what they could find to do or what attraction such a place could present. Perhaps some were friends of those who really had work to do and were present as sympathetic spectators, but I mention their presence to show that all idlers who chose were admitted, and there was a still larger number of domestic animals present. A weird-looking goat peered at me from one corner, then there were several sheep and lambs, but more numerous than all were the cats. There must have been more than a hundred scavenger cats present. Cats are never molested in Egypt, and these animals took no trouble to get out of the way.; it was necessary to be careful so as not to tread on them. When they are tired of picking out food from among the garbage they go and lie down on one of the domed roofs and enjoy the warmth coming up from the baths which these roofs cover. Here the cats sleep till they are hungry again. Thus there are animals in numbers sufficient to make the place

dangerously filthy, even if the household refuse and garbage brought in was quite clean in itself. Nor must it be thought that the scavengers especially select a cleaner sort of refuse to bring to the baths. On the contrary, it is simply household waste, green leaves, faded flowers, the peeling of vegetables, the offal of poultry or rabbits, broken pots and pans, rags and tatters, every sort of useless rubbish containing much moist and organic matter, all ready to ferment and add to the foulness of the surroundings.

"In the domed roofs of the baths there are ventilators. From below there came puffs of steam through these apertures and the voices of the women and children bathing also ascended. Doubtless they thought they were cleaning themselves, but there were heaps of foul refuse piled up on much higher levels than the ventilators and from these dust descended through the apertures on to the bather's naked skin just when the pores were opened under the heat of the bath; and commendable as the practice of frequent ablution may be, I felt that in Cairo it must have its risk. This particular hamman takes 186 cartloads of rubbish per month, and the stench and the flies engendered in this vast quantity of garbage and other refuse are appalling. Yet the hammam is in the very heart of the city and within a stone's throw of the headquarters of the British Army of Occupation. From amid all this dirt I was able to look up at these headquarters and see British soldiers leaning out of the windows to breathe the dust the wind might bring them from the abominable accumulation of filth on which I stood. On leaving this hammam I went to several other similar but smaller establishments. The conditions were much the same. Evil-smelling refuse piled up in

courts, dilapidated houses and roofs situated at the back of the baths, and peopled by innumerable cats, together with some bigger animals, such as sheep, goats, and occasionally by geese. In one case there was a bakery with the rubbish on one side and a rag merchants' depot and sorting place on the other side. Thus, from whichever side the wind might blow it would convey dust from a foul source on to both the moist dough and the baked loaves. The baker worked quite unconcernedly and evidently had no idea that his bread might easily be contaminated. Naturally no food should be exposed near places where refuse is stored and handled. As the scavengers' carts are emptied by hand into bags and their contents carried in small quantities at a time, there is a great scattering of the dust, and this should not be allowed in narrow streets and thickly populated districts, particularly when food is exposed for sale close at hand."

Those interested in this special subject might profitably read the several excellent articles on the question written by Mr. Adolphe Smith, the *Lancet's* special commissioner.

Dealing with the death-rate of Cairo we find that for 1908 it was 39·23 per 1000, and for 1909, 44·9 per 1,000. The infantile mortality rate in 1908 was 282 per 1,000 born, while the rate for children under 16 years of age was 71 per 1,000. Of the infants born in Cairo 28·2 per cent. die during the first year of life, and 48·5 per cent., or nearly one-half of the children born, will, unless an improvement be shown, die before reaching the age of 16 years.

"In Panama, Rio de Janeiro, and even on the West Coast of Africa, which had in the past a high mortality rate, the rate has under improved sanitary

conditions been very perceptibly lowered, in some respects very remarkably. The death-rate of Cairo during the past ten years has shown no like improvement—in fact, it would appear to have gradually increased," says the *British Medical Journal* (April 30, 1910). "The time would seem, therefore, to have come when an inquiry should be instituted into the prevailing diseases, so that an estimate may be formed of the influence of each on the excessive death-rate. The difficulties in the way of obtaining exact information may be great. Enough seems to be known about some of them to justify the necessary expenditure for preventive measures. Of some of the diseases occurring in Cairo little or nothing is known, except that they are diseases which destroy life; and until their causes and the exact way in which these causes are conveyed from one person to another—in fact their whole natural history—is known effective methods for their prevention cannot be devised or carried out. It is clear therefore that the Government should without delay cause researches to be undertaken by an adequate scientific staff with the view to the discovery of the mode of the transmission and the causes of many of those diseases the etiology and history of which little is understood.

"A sanitary organisation is indispensable for the prevention of diseases, for it is essential in order that those diseases of which the natural history is already known may be prevented, and therefore it is probable that it will also be required for those affections of which little is known at present, but whose natural history will become known as research progresses.

"An improved sanitary organisation will also be necessary for the ultimate care of those sanitary

works—such as drainage—which are now in progress, or about to be begun, in Cairo. To it should be entrusted the duty of making a periodical examination of the city to obtain information as to the prevalence of disease, so that the results of the preventive measures and of the major sanitary works may be ascertained and the expenditure on them watched.

"In Cairo at the present time death registration is in a very unsatisfactory state. In only 27 per cent. of all deaths is the cause certified by qualified medical men who have treated the deceased before death. This means that 73 per cent. of the total deaths occur without previous treatment by doctors, and although in such cases the corpses are viewed by a Government doctor or midwife, it is impossible in this way to obtain in the majority of cases any accurate information as to the real cause of death.

"The census taken in April 1907 enumerated a total population in Cairo of 654,476. Of this number 25,754 were infants under one year of age. But the number of births registered during that year was 28,350, excluding the majority of European births which were not registered. The average infantile mortality in Cairo during the past eight years was 300 per 1,000 births. During 1908 it was 282.

"An examination of the annual curve of the infantile mortality shows that it is highest in the early summer months, and that it is related to the humidity. Last year the general death-rate reached the astonishing figure of 105 per 1,000. There was a sudden heat wave and great atmospheric dryness, and children died of diarrhœa by hundreds. Of 3,016 infants under one year of age who died in Cairo during June and July 1909, 1,179, or 39 per cent., died of

diarrhœa; 625, or 20 per cent., died of marasmus; 79, or 2 per cent., died of measles.

"Records of 74,281 persons under sixteen years of age in Cairo living and dead were in 1908 obtained for two years, and the prevailing diseases which caused the excessive death-rate were, in order of incidence, infantile diarrhœa, marasmus and rickets, measles and bronchitis, inherited syphilis.

"Endemic cirrhosis of the liver is said to cause death in 4·5 per cent. of the people; the incidence of malaria varies with the locality and other factors. There is also a high zymotic death-rate, and tuberculosis is very common. But the diseases mentioned above are the common causes of the excessive death-rate in childhood when the excess is most marked. During adult life tuberculosis, typhoid fever, small-pox, typhus fever, and dysentery occur frequently in Cairo, and seem to be intensified by the insanitation. Cancer is also prevalent as in other parts of the world. Diphtheria is common, while scarlet fever is almost unknown.

"The diseases mentioned are some of those which cause the excessive death-rate in Cairo, and it is clearly the duty of Government to institute researches into their etiology and prophylaxis. The experience of other tropical and sub-tropical countries suggests that the first step should be the appointment of a scientific commission, and the Egyptian Government has already in Cairo, in its service, a number of highly trained medical men, veterinary surgeons, and others who are skilled in scientific research. The commissioners should select the subjects to be investigated and determine the mode in which the research should be conducted."

According to the last annual report during 1910

pneumonic plague in Egypt rose to 159 cases, and "it is practically certain these figures" would be "exceeded considerably in 1911. Bubonic plague is practically endemic in certain districts in Lower Egypt, the number of cases in 1910 being 1,238, as against 513 in 1909, while the number of localities affected was 142 as compared with 76 in 1909; the reason for such extension being the failure of the heads of villages to report the presence of the disease."

In one week in May 1910, the birth and death statistics for Cairo recorded 561 births, of whom ten were Europeans, and the others natives; and 1,255 deaths, of whom fifty-one were Europeans. Of the deaths 245 were adults and 1,010 were children. If the number of deaths continues to exceed the number of births, at this rate it is only a matter of time for the Egyptian population of Cairo to disappear. This heavy mortality amongst children is due mostly to the ignorance of the native mothers, especially of the lower classes, and considering the depth of their ignorance and their filthy habits it is perhaps more surprising that the infantile death-rate is not even higher than it actually is. Nowhere do dirt and individual negligence seem to prevail as in Egypt, and very little is actually done officially to inculcate into the native mind the elements of hygiene, and the penalties arising from dirt and superstitious treatment of diseases. The absence of organised official effort is most deplorable in Egypt. The Administration is aware of the enormous task before it, but appears either to be apathetic or afraid to tackle it. When one considers the thousands of filthy dilapidated insanitary hovels in Cairo, into which light and air, soap and water never appear to penetrate, the death-rate is not surprising. If ever a sanitary crusade was

needed in any city it is needed in Cairo. But nothing is done.

During 1910 the two Lady Cromer dispensaries in Cairo treated no less than 18,366 cases, whilst 130,000 attendances were registered. The Société pour la Protection d'Enfance during the same year dealt with 29,000 cases.

It will be generally admitted that the miserable Public Health Department in Egypt labours under many difficulties inconceivable to the Western mind. The total amount spent on the sanitary staff of Cairo, which is the headquarters of the Public Health Department, is only £E.9,791 per annum; and the city has a population of 654,000. One sanitary authority, writing on this subject, says that "Cairo cannot be made healthy for even £E.27,000 a year; the cleansing of Panama and Rio de Janeiro involved the expenditure of millions, and without doubt to do the like Cairo would cost a large sum."

The sum at present expended on public health in Cairo is roughly 3½*d.* per head of the population. The capital is divided into fifteen districts for public health purposes, and in each district, with a population of 54,000, there is a staff of a native doctor, assisted by a midwife, a clerk and two messengers. The duties of the doctor comprise those of registrar of births and deaths, police surgeon, sanitary inspector, medico-legal expert in criminal cases, and dispenser. The salary amounts on an average to £E.13 per month, so that in addition to his official duties the doctor is compelled to engage in private practice. "In consequence," writes the same expert, "the public health suffers, and it may be said that the amount of sanitary work being done in Cairo is practically nil."

The Public Health Department, even in the capital, is starved financially, and is not in a position to undertake seriously those duties which it owes to the public and for which it was presumably created. There can be no question as to the ability and competence of the staff of the department, which is ably directed by an English doctor, skilled and experienced in his special work, who is assisted by a staff of English medical assistants, equally highly trained and experienced. Even these can do but little with such very limited resources in such a vast field, hampered and restricted as their efforts and work are by obstacles which in certain directions are to them insurmountable.

The total expenditure in Cairo on works of administration and maintenance in 1910 amounted to £E.122,000. Alexandria, with its foreign municipality, spent £E.300,000, though its population is considerably less than half that of Cairo, whilst the first municipal budget of Port Said in 1911 was expected to reach £E.24,000 by a voluntary system of taxation on the part of foreign residents and the usual Government grant of £E.12,000.

The difficulty is that the public have no means of acquiring information on public health matters beyond the meagre particulars given in the annual report. The department, although it affects most vitally the public, is a bureaucracy; its doings are wrapped in official secrecy. Alexandria, where public health work is on a much more satisfactory footing, owing to the fact that it is a department controlled by a municipal council, is in a considerably better position than Cairo. There the public, through its representatives on the council, can control and assist the department. The officers are the servants

of the public. In Cairo, unfortunately, no public influence can be brought to bear on the Public Health Department. It ignores public agitation, and there exist no means, legislative or municipal, to stimulate it or to assist it in discharging its important functions to the satisfaction and confidence of the community.

It is a state department, and the public can exercise no control and possess no voice in the matter because the European community contributes nothing directly in the way of taxation to its support.

Under the Capitulations Europeans of all nationalities enjoy (*sic*) immunity from sanitary rules and regulations, which among the lower classes of foreigners results in many evading essential obligations, in respect particularly to infectious diseases.

For instance, every year there are in Cairo regular outbreaks of smallpox, typhoid and diphtheria, which in London would give rise to considerable apprehension. It is impossible for the Public Health Department, even if it were a much larger body than it is, to ever accurately estimate the number of cases of such serious diseases. There is no law of compulsory registration governing the various European nationalities, and the discovery of cases among the huge native population is an impossibility with such a limited sanitary staff. The department can only issue statistics of cases which come or are brought to its knowledge, and, in the case of decent Europeans, it may be accepted such cases are reported conscientiously by their medical advisers to the authorities.

The official hospital accommodation being hopelessly inadequate, cases of infectious diseases are dealt with in the homes of patients or are removed to the private hospitals and nursing homes, the accommodation of which is frequently overtaxed.

Disinfection is not compulsory, and there can be no doubt that the many unscrupulous foreign physicians who practise in Egypt profit considerably by concealing cases and by enabling their patients to evade those sanitary rules which should govern a well-disposed community. Perhaps the patients are not to blame, as the official accommodation for infectious cases at the disposal of the public is extremely limited and, in instances, revolting.

It is possible the Public Health Department regard their task of attempting to effectively control the sanitation and public health of the community as hopeless. To this reason may be attributed the apparent neglect and indifference of the department to its essential duties during the prevalence of infectious diseases.

During the spring of 1909 smallpox, typhoid and diphtheria were very prevalent in Cairo. In consequence of published misgivings on the part of the British community, which were filtering through to England, the Department of Public Health announced in London, through a telegraphic agency, that public health in the capital was *normal*! The published statistics of the department revealed that fifty-three cases of smallpox alone had been reported in three weeks. It would be impossible to estimate, for the reasons given, the actual numbers of cases unreported. And this, in the opinion of the department, is the normal condition of public health in Cairo.

As instance of what is left undone may be mentioned the following, which occurred at this period. In one house in Kasr-el-Nil, an Englishman died of smallpox. There had been five cases in the same building previous to his, and the house and contents were not disinfected. Three cases of smallpox occurred in

dressmakers' establishments. The clothes the girls were working on were sent home to customers and the places were neither disinfected nor closed. Two English cases were kept in a tenement house owing to lack of hospital accommodation. Three other European cases were notified by surgeons, and the houses of the patients were not disinfected, though the surgeons had ordered this to be done.

An English doctor, practising in Cairo at the same period, published the following:—"A patient of mine last month suffered from diphtheria. He recovered and I at once notified the Medical Department of Health in Cairo, requesting them to disinfect the patient's residence. Some days later I met the patient, who reported that no disinfection had been carried out. I urged him to at once go personally to the public health office, which he did, and was informed that no disinfection could be made without the request of his medical attendant! I again made application, being advised that my first application had not been received. It took exactly ten days for the infected place to be disinfected from the day I made the first application. In the meantime I was called in to attend a relative of the patient who had contracted diphtheria; probably from the first patient's residence."

From the above some conception may be arrived at of the methods for dealing with the prevention and repression of infectious diseases in the capital of Egypt. It is unnecessary to refer to the provincial towns and villages, where, of course, matters are infinitely worse.

An Egyptian doctor, trained in the United States, offered the following opinions on this all-important subject, and his statement reveals the fact that official

neglect is not confined to inadequate treatment of infectious diseases, and indicates a much larger field of action at present totally neglected.

"A better and more satisfactory condition of sanitation in Egypt cannot be looked forward to unless there is a real and sincere co-operation of three important factors, that is to say, the public itself, the physician, and the health official. Each one of these mentioned has an important and responsible duty which should be carefully and honestly performed. Take, for instance, the public, of whom I am exceedingly sorry to say the majority still adhere to tradition in employing the aid of a sheik, or priest, for healing disease, in the employment of barbers and ignorant old women called midwives, through whom many mothers and many infants perish daily for want of the skill of the trained physician. The natives have great faith also in superstition and old-fashioned remedies, which do them more harm than good; and they never will consent to call in a doctor unless there is an extraordinary case of emergency or their patient is at the very point of death. They dread the process of disinfection, which is an important factor in curbing the spread of many of the most dreadful contagious diseases and epidemics. They unfortunately conceal their patients on such occasions; and consequently, in time of epidemics, diseases spread like wildfire. They do not take care of their houses as they should and never follow hygienic principles. Ventilation of houses is absolutely neglected, also the benefits of sunshine and out-door life and exercise, which are unknown to many of the families in Egypt. It is only the medical man, who comes in contact with, and to his great sorrow, observes such a pitiable

condition of affairs and such negligence, but to be fair I may say that the blame should not entirely fall on their shoulders, as you will see later.

"If every doctor, whenever he visits such a neglected house to see such a patient, will take the trouble to devote a few minutes of his time to teach those that are concerned with the patient the necessity of observing hygienic principles, I think he can do a great deal towards the betterment of our sanitary condition of to-day. But with much deep sorrow and regret quite a number of physicians in Egypt not only seem to forget their duty, but they certainly show their lack and great need of medical ethics. When they are called to a consultation they never respect the opinions of one another nor treat each other as professional.

"Has the visitor ever been to the native quarters which make up the bulk of the city, or some country places next to Cairo, and seen for himself the amount of attention and care they are really receiving from the Public Health Department and its officials? Has he ever heard or observed the numerous small shops which are to be seen in every corner in Cairo called 'Dakakin El Manzool,' containing all sorts of candy which has been stuffed with various poisonous materials, such as morphine, opium, strychnine, cantharides and others, and is sold freely to people who use it to entice homeless girls and minors for immoral purposes, and some use it for their young, innocent wives, to put them under its influence, leaving them to sleep for days and in many instances for ever in order to satisfy their beastly instincts?

"Are the public aware of the Public Health Department's methods, and the many things which are left

undone, which are well within the knowledge of every physician here? Where are all our inspectors and health officials?

"Now what can the health department in Egypt well do to raise the standard of health and hygiene in Egypt, to improve physicians, and to enlighten the public. There are the following points, if I may suggest them:

"1. All those who hold a medical degree from a college of a good standing outside of Egypt should pass an examination before a medical board appointed by the Government, before receiving a licence to practise. That will help to keep out of the profession the incompetent and the dishonest, at the same time it will serve as a lesson and a warning to those who leave Egypt for the sake of studying medicine in Europe and America, to be more careful in their studies and in the selection of their college, which should be of good standing and reputation. Why should the public restrict it to the Egyptian graduate in medicine from Kasr-el-Aini, as the recent examinations show, and then make it too easy for those that come from outside?

"2. There must be at hand in the department fully printed information and regulations, directing physicians to whom they shall report and what precaution they should immediately take in cases of contagious diseases and epidemics.

"3. The appointment of reliable persons to strictly guard houses in case of contagion and to entrust to their care the process of disinfection, and not to put it in the hands of some rough and ignorant people who terrorise the household by their disgraceful conduct and habits and cause considerable consternation on their approach.

"4. The teaching of hygiene in at least the secondary schools.

"5. The careful supervision of barbers, the training of midwives, the punishment of quacks and meddlers in the practice of medicine.

"6. The establishing of free dispensaries in every poor quarter in Cairo and other cities, to look after the health of the poor and give them all the necessary directions for the care of themselves and their children.

"7. Rigidly scrutinising the inspection of food materials, poor native houses and shops, and neglected native quarters, to prevent the contamination of food by flies and dust and the spread of disease.

"8. A municipal department should publish during the smallpox epidemics lists indicating the infected houses, if they have been thoroughly disinfected, and how many houses have been strictly guarded."

It will readily be seen that as the Public Health Department of Cairo is inadequate and unable to deal satisfactorily even with the regular outbreaks of infectious diseases, many other well understood functions of such a department are of necessity entirely neglected—for instance, the thorough periodical inspection of all markets, food stores and shops, dairies, bakeries, etc.

One of the most revolting spectacles is afforded by a visit to the markets, when the "fly season" is at its height. Without exaggeration, it is impossible, in most cases, to see the food, covered as it is entirely with flies. The most familiar and disgusting sight which greets the visitor to Cairo during the summer months at every street corner is the native children, their noses and eyes discharging, their faces literally covered with flies, which the mothers squatting beside them are too indolent to drive away.

In the native and low European quarters of Cairo and other towns the custom is to dispose of offal and domestic refuse by throwing it through the door or window on to the footpath, there to be devoured by dogs, cats, rats, and flies, which are the acknowledged scavengers of Egypt. It is impossible for Europeans to keep the flies from entering their buildings, and the kitchens, presided over by native cooks, are not conducive either to good health or appetite.

Egypt for the most part is also infected with house-bugs, lice, fleas, and cockroaches, the wholesale breeding of which is encouraged by native habits of indifference and want of cleanliness.

It is almost equally impossible to be free of these disgusting pests, which are generously carried about and distributed by the natives in public vehicles and places of resort. It is always necessary to inspect carefully one's washing, and seldom does the inspection go unrewarded. These insects are even found in the linen, walls and floors of the best hotels and dwelling-houses in Cairo.

Another matter of public importance to Cairo, Helouan and other towns is the extermination of mosquitoes. This work was originally undertaken some years ago by Dr. H. C. Ross, and there is universal medical and public testimony in Egypt that his efforts were successful. Since he resigned, through some dispute with the Government in 1908, this important matter has been neglected, with the inevitable result that in Cairo and Helouan especially, the mosquitoes are worse than ever and are at times unbearable. Cairo is simply swarming with them in certain districts. The official reply is that the anopholes is not in evidence in Cairo, and that there is therefore no danger of malaria occurring

or being transmitted by this particular insect. At Helouan, however, cases of malaria have occurred and are also stated to have done so in Cairo. There can be no doubt that mosquitoes, with the flies, transmit a considerable amount of disease. The nuisance, which, as has been proved by the work done by Dr. Ross, can be eradicated, apparently must continue—through either bureaucratic indifference or lack of funds.

If corroborative testimony is needed it is given in the *Lancet*, which in an editorial on the subject of public health in Cairo, dealing with the British Agent's report, wrote as follows :—

"We regret to say that Sir Eldon Gorst largely ignores the prevention of disease in his report. He notices most subjects and dwells at length upon some of them, notably the law and education, but his observations under the heading of public health are not only exceedingly brief, but refer exclusively to the cure of maladies already contracted, and make no reference whatever to the adoption or otherwise of sanitary measures properly so-called. It is true that the drainage of Cairo is mentioned, and there is also some allusion to overcrowding and an improved water supply, but these highly important matters are only lightly touched upon, and it seems doubtful whether their connection with prolonged life and a lower death-rate is thoroughly appreciated. No doubt much good sanitary work was done during the year, but we are not told so. That a great deal remains undone is evident from the letters of our sanitary commissioner. In Egypt the infant mortality is appalling. We should be glad to learn what has been done towards diminishing it. Are medical officers of health appointed in sufficient numbers, and have they been given power to enforce the

requirements of elementary hygiene? Has anything been done to ameliorate the condition of the innumerable *birkets*, which serve alike as a dumping ground for filth of every description and as reservoirs for drinking water? It would be easy to multiply such questions, but the foregoing will suffice. It is high time that persons in authority should learn that nothing on earth is so insanitary as disease, and that the primary object of every true sanitarian is its extinction. Incidentally, it is well to cure disease, but the real business of a medical man is to prevent disease occurring. It is better to prevent one case than to cure ten. Not many years ago Egypt was looked upon with suspicion as a place of residence. Insurance companies used to charge extra premiums for permission to reside there. Have the conditions improved that make for a healthy life since the British occupation? Apparently they have, to judge by the yearly increasing crowds of visitors; but, on the other hand, the state recorded by our sanitary commissioner is, to say the least, unsatisfactory."

It is obvious that reforms which shall bring about the creation of an efficient, well-organised and earnest public health department for Cairo, first, and then for the principal towns and villages, are imperatively necessary and most urgent. They must, however, be initiated by the Government, stimulated by the British Agent, backed, if necessary, by the British Government. It is idle for the British Agent or the Egyptian authorities to do nothing, knowing well that for various reasons the demand for an efficient public health department will never originate from the European colonies in Cairo. The opponents to the agitation for such reform in Egypt are syndicates controlling hotels and traders interested

directly in the tourist business. During the recent agitation many cases of infectious diseases occurred in hotels, several proving fatal, but these were hushed up for fear of creating a scare among the tourists. The public health then is allowed to remain in such an unsatisfactory condition for two principal reasons: the first being the disinclination of the Government to take action in consequence presumably of the large expenditure that would be involved, and second, the probable opposition on the part of certain Europeans who fear that exposure might, for the time being, result in serious financial loss to themselves. Ultimately, the latter, of course, would reap the benefit of the country having a clean bill of health, but this it is difficult to get them to understand. The recent agitation among the British community was restricted chiefly on account of the fact that the majority of residents in Cairo are officials, and therefore unable, for obvious reasons, to take too pronounced a part in it.

The excuse that a proposal for an effective public health administration would meet with the serious opposition of the diplomatic body and their countrymen—other than hotel proprietors—is unworthy of earnest consideration, for at Alexandria all foreign communities, headed by their consuls, unite loyally with the authorities in bearing the small burden of additional taxation, and in co-operating for the protection of public health. The Public Health Department should work hand in hand with the Public Works Department, which should be given effective powers; such as it does not at present possess.

The obstacles to an efficient public health department in Cairo and the provinces are admittedly,

from the official standpoint, the Capitulations. To introduce sanitary legislation in Egypt the consent of the various Powers would be necessary. If a representative demand for sanitary legislation for Egypt was presented to the Powers, is there any reason to suppose it would not be granted? On the contrary, the Powers have recently given their consent to the Cairo drainage system involving the principle of contributory taxation. It is not a political question, but is one which concerns vitally every resident who has made his home in Egypt; it is a necessary protective measure for the poor ignorant natives, who with their depraved dirty habits are herded together in hundreds of thousands in their filthy hovels in congested Cairo.

Unless the Public Health Department can absolutely control the city in all matters appertaining to health, the population there renders the city liable at any moment to a serious epidemic of any contagious disease, from which no resident can expect to be immune.

An administration that is to have the task of cleansing Cairo and other towns, eradicating nests of disease, exercising thorough control over sanitation, and the inspection of foods, checking preventable disease and performing earnestly the numerous duties connected with public health, will need men and money, but taxation equitably distributed would fall lightly upon the individual. And it should fall equally on all, native and European. At a given opportunity it is the duty of all to do something for the country in which they reside—and incidentally make their money. From a selfish aspect they will be helping to materially improve their own conditions, and a clean bill of health for Egypt will not be without its effect in Europe, even on the tourist traffic!

CHAPTER VII

PUBLIC SERVICES

Railways, Public Works, Irrigation, Survey, Prisons, Post Office, Fire Brigades

Among the most important public services in Egypt are the Irrigation and the Railway Departments. The agricultural welfare of the country is dependent on the functions of the former, and, in a land where roads are very few, the transport of produce and of passengers is dependent almost entirely on the latter. With one or two exceptions the railways of Egypt are state undertakings, and the remaining non-official lines are light railways, introduced in 1898, which operate in the rich agricultural delta of Lower Egypt. The largest of them is the Egyptian Delta Light Railway, which has a total length of 1,000 kilometres, and is a British company with its registered office in London.

From the commencement of the British occupation the Egyptian State Railway was for many years a weak point in the administration. "Buildings, permanent way, locomotives and rolling stock alike suffered from want of funds in the latter years of Ismail Pasha's rule," Sir Auckland Colvin informs us. "All were in need of replacement by the aid of the capital expenditure, but no capital was forthcoming; nor did matters mend for many years. Forty-five per cent. of the gross profits was allowed

for cost of administration by the Convention of March 1885." A strong commission, which came from England in 1904 to report on the Egyptian railways, recommended that about a million a year should be spent for three years, with the object of putting the existing railways into proper order.

In 1883, the period of the British occupation of Egypt, the net receipts were £E.692,916. In 1909, sixteen years later, they had risen to £E.1,283,000, and in 1910 to £E.1,446,000, against £E.1,612,000 in 1907, and £E.1,353,000 in 1908.

The Egyptian State Railway is now one of the principal sources of revenue to the Government.

The total length of line opened to traffic at present is 2,358 kilometres, of which 224 are narrow gauge, and several local extensions are proceeding. The main lines run from Alexandria, Port Said, Suez, and Diametta to Cairo, with branches throughout the Nile Delta, and from Cairo the line follows the western bank of the Nile to Luxor and Assouan in Upper Egypt, serving all the principal towns en route. A steamer service plies between Assouan and Wadi Halfa, connecting the Egyptian State Railway with the Soudan Government Railway to Khartoum and beyond, the extension of the Soudan line being now under course of construction. From Luxor to Assouan the gauge of the railway changes, a narrower gauge being in use between these two places.

The express services on the Egyptian lines are fairly good, the journey from Port Said to Cairo, 145 miles, being done in four and a half hours. The run from Alexandria to Cairo, on a double track, is better, for the distance is 130 miles, and the journey takes exactly three hours, the first-class fare being 18*s.*, second-class 9*s.* The fares are therefore cheap

the second-class fare being half that of the first; it is impossible for a European to travel third for numerous reasons.

In June 1909 the Government took over the Khargeh Oasis Railway, having purchased the line from the Corporation of Western Egypt, a British company, for £E.125,000, which was reported to be half of the amount spent on its construction by the corporation. Traffic has already shown a substantial increase and thus justified the action of the Government.

Capital expenditure on the State Railway during 1910 amounted to £E.386,322, against £E.362,000 in 1909, the latter including three extensions and bridge and station reconstruction, together with £E.74,000 spent on improving the signalling system on the main line. The necessity for this was evidenced by a serious and expensive railway accident, £E.20,000 having been paid out for compensation during the year, and it is satisfactory to learn that the interlocking of all stations between Cairo and Alexandria has now been

	1908.	1909.	1910.
Gross receipts	£E. 3,435,000	£E. 3,258,000	£E. 3,401,000
Expenditure	,, 2,082,000	,, 1,975,000	,, 1,955,000
Net earnings	,, 1,353,000	,, 1,283,000	,, 1,446,000
Gross receipts per kilometre of line open	,, 1,473	,, 1,398	,, 1,460
Net earnings per kilometre of line open	,, 586	,, 551	,, 621
Percentage of working expenses to gross receipts	60·2	60·6	57·5
Number of passengers	25,842,000	25,306,000	25,711,000
Tons of goods	5,775,000	5,181,000	5,508,000
Estimated capital value of the railways	£E.25,093,000	£E.25,293,000	£E.25,679,000
Interest earned on capital	5.39 per cent.	5.07 per cent.	5.64 per cent.

completed. The sum of £E.300,000 was granted from the Reserve Fund for capital expenditure during 1911, the more important items being the new lines Zifteh to Zagazig and the Barrage to Ashmoun. The strengthening of the bridges to support the new heavy rolling stock is being carried on.

The table on the previous page compares the working of the railways for the last three years.

Requests for new stations are continually received. It is quite recognised that these are very desirable, both in the interests of the public and of the railway, but unfortunately at this moment the trained staff to work them does not exist. Men are being trained as rapidly as possible, but pace has to be kept with the new signalling which is being installed everywhere, and the conditions of work of the existing staff have to be improved so that it will be some time before men are available for new stations.

On December 31, 1909, the stock of engines was 589; 44 new engines having been received in 1908. The coal consumption for 1909 was 11·8 kilogrammes per kilometre, as compared with 11·2 in 1907.

The average life of a locomotive on the State Railway is thirteen years. In 1909 the total engine kilometrage run was 19,688,406, and the total of coal and coke consumed was 229,070,420 kilogrammes. In the same year the Railway carried 25,306,178 passengers, 5,180,830 tons of merchandise, and 498,568 head of live stock.

The Western Oasis Railway, running from the Nile to the Kharga Oasis, was taken over by the Government on June 1, 1909, the total length of the line being 194 kilometres. There are three engines and five passenger coaches. During 1909, 6,141 passengers were carried, and 3,542 tons of merchandise, the

receipts from June to December being £E.3,279. The line, operated as it is now by the State Railway, continues to show improved returns, the "deportation of bad characters by the Government from Egypt to the Oasis of Kharga" having contributed to the increase in the traffic returns!

Turning to the light railways of Egypt we find that the total length of these four lines in 1910 was 1,228 kilometres, and in the same year their gross receipts were as follows:—

	Gross Receipts.	Working Expenses percentage of receipts.
Egyptian Delta Light Railway .	£E.200,750	58·00 per cent.
Do. Helouan Branch . .	54,500	67·50 ,,
Basse-Egypte . . .	33,810	49·80 ,,
Fayoum	24,868	67·75 ,,

The following table shows the progress of these companies since the year 1900:—

Year.	Egyptian Delta Light Railways Limited	La Société Anonyme des Chemins de fer de la Basse-Egypte.	Fayoum Light Railway Company.	Total.
	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
1900 . . .	41,000	17,198	7,316	65,514
1901 . . .	99,981	20,071	11,490	131,542
1902 . . .	125,610	21,857	12,130	159,597
1903 . . .	129,471	23,091	18,423	170,985
1904 . . .	159,192	26,199	23,528	208,919
1905 . . .	168,326	29,872	24,650	222,848
1906 . . .	196,746	32,122	25,573	254,441
1907 . . .	212,808	36,740	27,013	276,561
1908 . . .	207,732	35,760	27,032	270,524
1909 . . .	186,913	35,184	24,460	246,557

The total number of passengers carried by the three companies now at work in 1909—the last

report to hand—was 7,543,781; the total weight of goods handled during the same period being 940,721 tons.

Macauley Bey, the general manager of the State Railway and the Light Railways Commissioner, states his opinion thus:

"The three companies, which now work a total length of 1,228 kilometres, would, if some of the more necessary extensions were carried out, find their existing systems approximately doubled. The great advantage which they would derive from this would be that their working expenses would not increase in proportion to their earnings. This is a very important consideration at the present time, when all the companies are obliged to consider their expenditure closely. Their returns for 1909 and 1908 show that at the present juncture they require very careful handling, as the concessions do not appear to be quite so advantageous as they were expected to be when originally accepted."

Another railway undertaking is the private line of H.H. the Khedive, known as the Mariout Railway. This line starts from Mex, near Alexandria, passes through Mariout, and then goes along parallel with the coast for a distance of 222 kilometres, of which 165 kilometres are of the standard gauge and the remainder one metre gauge. Its destination for the present is Mersa Matroo, but perhaps at some future date it may be extended to Tripoli.

The railhead at present is Fouka, and Mersa Matroo is 65 kilometres further west. There are two expresses and four mixed trains run daily on the standard gauge, and one train daily on the metre gauge line. Since the opening of the line markets have been established at four stations,

ELECTRIC CARS AT HELIOPOLIS.

viz., Amrieh, Bahig, Hummum and Fouka, and on certain fixed days the Arabs come in, bringing produce and animals in great quantities and numbers, and a big trade has sprung up in each of these districts.

Alongside the line deposits of gypsum and hard stone for paving and building purposes have been found in paying quantities. The line is doing exceedingly well, and in 1911 was bringing in a profit of 8½ per cent. net.

In the Report of the State Railway for 1909 there is an interesting chart showing the gradual development of the carrying capacity of the State Railway since 1887.

On the whole there is very little substantial fault to be found with the Egyptian State Railway. It shows, as far as the public are concerned, a gradual and substantial improvement.

The trains are punctual, and considering the difficulties attached to the careful training of the native staff, especially signalmen and drivers, it is surprising accidents are so few. The public is well served, but, as may be expected, there are frequent causes for complaint, one being especially the dirty condition of the cars, and the lavatories on them; but the native servants, as every householder knows, need constant supervision in these and other matters, and it is therefore perhaps surprising that the Railway Administration gets along so well with the material at its disposal. It seems to be a physical and moral impossibility to compel the lower natives of the labouring or coolie class to be clean, truthful and honest, and on this class to a great extent the administration must of necessity be dependent for the bulk of its labour.

In the better positions, involving a sense of responsibility and some education, the administration is benefiting by the general progress of education and it is now able to obtain more than sufficient young recruits with requisite qualifications, and to train these for its requirements.

Owing to the recent strengthening and reconstruction of bridges and permanent way a considerable improvement in the type of locomotives and rolling stock is noticeable. In place of the small German locomotives which hitherto hauled the expresses, the large new corridor cars have necessitated—as in England—a stronger type of locomotive, the latest being the now familiar six-wheeled coupled North British "Atlantic" type, with also powerful tank engines for local trains. The French type, similar to that of the Nord Express, still continues to perform its service well, though a stronger engine of this class appears necessary. The goods engines are mostly German, and excellent engines have they proved to be. But there is a distinctly British appearance about the railway, in the type of the engines, their shape, brasswork, and crimson colouring, the signals, and the cars, which is perhaps noticeable after the journey across Europe. The only exceptions, rendered possible by the straight, level nature of the track, are the huge Hungarian steel freight trucks, mounted on bogie wheels, which are displacing the diminutive goods trucks of the English type.

It is like the first glimpse of home to the passenger on a steamer from the Far East, when the vessel is tied up near Ismalieh on the canal, and he suddenly hears the whistle of a locomotive, and sees the train, its engine gay with crimson paint and brasswork, typically English, dash by. There can

be sentiment even in the sight of a railway train to a sojourner in distant Eastern lands who has not seen one for years.

Of the internal working of the Railway Administration but little is known to the general public. It is a state department, issuing annually its report, and is responsible to the Government. To the business man it would appear to be capable of and open to many improvements, a feeling which, if analysed, is no doubt due to the fact that even a State Railway is a huge business undertaking, and the average business Englishman is inclined to believe that railways, like other business concerns, can be best run by men who have been trained especially for the work.

The State Railway, like that referred to by Kipling, is run by "a colonel and staff in gold lace," officers of the Royal Engineers, whose duty it became during the occupation in 1885, and they have been running it ever since. From several official points of view this may be advantageous, considering that Britain remains the occupying Power, but as a commercial undertaking there are not wanting frequent evidences that the State Railway would benefit substantially by the introduction of trained railway men as heads of departments who would be able to introduce judiciously up-to-date business methods. This has been proved to be the case elsewhere in Eastern lands by the importation of competent men for higher positions of responsibility from English railways, who had the benefit of the latest English railway business methods and ideas.

Proofs of this were given recently in Egypt, at the trial of a native official accused of receiving wholesale bribes for selling subordinate positions.

The case was not proved, and the British senior officials testified glowingly to the ability, character and integrity of the accused. But the case revealed the under-current of methods and ideas in the native officials, and showed to an amazing degree the amount of responsibility placed upon the shoulders of the native official in question, and the want of actual knowledge and control by his seniors. The system which permitted the possibility of such alleged irregularities is bad. The case emphasised the need of trained English railway business men being at the head of departments, to introduce an up-to-date business system, and a change of methods which would make such charges impossible.

The Railway Administration, which pays to its higher officials very handsome salaries, now requires to be conducted by business men, who by training and experience have made railway work their profession. The military element can always be retained on the Advisory Council to safeguard military interests in the line. This is not meant as any reflection on either the ability or character of the military officers who run the State Railway, for they are distinguished members of a magnificent corps. Compared with professional railway men of the various highly-trained services that form part of a large British railway company, they would probably be ready to acknowledge their inexperience, but as military officers they have been planted there to run the line—and they run it to the best of their ability and experience, until a beneficent Government, having the increase of revenue and public convenience at heart, shall see fit to remove them for other services.

Some public criticism was recently created by the

introduction of a responsible auditor and accountant, a retired officer who had held a high appointment in the Indian Civil Service. This gentleman, it was publicly reported, overhauled the financial methods of the administration, his investigations and suggestions resulting in considerable economies being introduced into the service. So successful was the experiment in this department that it opened up the important question as to whether the whole of the spending departments of the Government should not in turn be overhauled by a highly qualified accountant, who could bring to bear on his important task a long and valuable experience of official methods in other and larger Eastern administrations with a view to introducing essential reforms.

The result was seen in a recent report of Sir Eldon Gorst, who stated that " in order to secure thoroughly economical expenditure of public funds a post of Inspector-General of Accounts was created in 1908, and Mr. A. H. Middleton, Director of Audit and Accounts of the Egyptian State Railways, was selected for the position.

" During last year Mr. Middleton's attention was chiefly occupied with the Ministry of Public Works, the largest spending department of the Government. Each branch of the Towns and Buildings Department was visited, and it was found that closer financial supervision was desirable and that a re-arrangement of the service was necessary, as work had increased during recent years, and somewhat outgrown the existing machinery. A small committee was appointed to study the organisation and geographical divisions of the inspectorates, and certain changes were ultimately recommended towards economy and efficiency. These are now being carried out.

"The Irrigation Department and other allied services were next inspected, with the result that it was considered advisable to create a separate accounts office for the Public Works Department in charge of an experienced accountant, who, while responsible to the Ministry of Finance for an efficient audit, would be in close touch with the executive officers of the department and guide them in their account work.

"The financial organisation of the Department of Public Health and the National Printing Press is now being taken in hand, and, when this work is completed, similar investigations will be undertaken in other branches of the Government service."

It would be remarkable in any other country but Egypt that such a periodical overhauling of departmental methods with a view to effecting economies was never instituted before. The existing methods are regarded with considerable dissatisfaction by many responsible, conscientious officials, who would prefer to find scope for their special ability and energy in actually carrying out in practice the work for which they were selected instead of frittering away the best part of their time in filling up a multitude of forms demanded by an obsolete system consisting of a compromise between French and English methods in use many years ago. More than one head of a department has complained of being bound by a stupid red-tape system, based on the methods of the Napoleonic era, which the Government is either too indolent or sentimentally afraid to alter. The result is that the best part of the time and energy of these men, instead of being devoted to the real work of their departments, is occupied in what is essentially clerical work—most of it unnecessary. The advent

of an auditor-general with executive powers in introducing new and reasonable methods will not only effect a considerable saving in public money, but also release high-paid specialised labour to devote itself entirely to the carrying out of the important duties for which it was engaged.

The Public Works Department is occupied chiefly in the erection of public buildings, which are, of necessity, in much demand throughout the country, and in the reconstruction of those buildings which answered public requirements under the past régime, but which are now in an advanced state of dilapidation. Most of the Government offices are conveniently situated in a special quarter of Cairo. A few are good substantial buildings, which are, however, too small for the requirements of a growing administration. The majority might with advantage be pulled down and rebuilt. The want of funds restricts the proper housing and development of even the administrative departments of state. Egypt is very poorly represented in public buildings, and few are really worthy of the name and befitting the dignity of their office. The estimate for 1909, however, provided for the erection of a new Ministry of Justice, costing £47,000; a new Ministry of Education, costing £167,000; Ministry of the Interior, £25,000, and a new Ministry of Finance, £179,000. During 1910 schemes for thirty-nine new buildings, at an estimated outlay of £E.283,000, were prepared.

Here again, in this department, always very important and especially so in an Oriental country, steeped in dirt and prejudice, saturated with servility and corruption, the Capitulations rise up to check the work of reform and progress of a Government which is credited with honestly endeavour-

ing to regenerate the land and its occupants. The hands of the Public Works Department, like those of the Public Health Department, are bound hopelessly by that nightmare of real reform, the Capitulations. At least, we are repeatedly told so by the Government, the British Adviser, and every official who records in permanent narrative form the record of the country since the Occupation. Here again it is not easy to understand why the various Powers should deliberately stand in the way of the progress of Egypt by refusing to accept and confirm any comprehensive scheme laid before them which would give reasonable powers to the Public Works Department to work hand-in-hand, as it should do, with the Sanitary Department, for the regulation and control of the health and lives of the public. That is one of its essential functions. Yet we are repeatedly asked to believe that this is so: that the Government of Egypt, controlled by Great Britain through its representative, is unable to acquire for such a responsible department the right to discharge the most elementary functions of its office.

The Capitulations are well enough in their way, so long as they are restricted to the decision of issues between private parties. To expect them, however, to go on until the Egyptian people are in a remote future considered to be fit for emancipation is a Canute-like negation of the demands of municipal progress that is absurd, unreasonable, and unjust. It is even worse, for it might under certain conditions be considered as criminal indifference to the welfare of the people of Egypt, native and foreign.

If the Capitulations were ever intended to be used simply for the exploitation of political whims and objects and the protection of loans, it would have

been more humane to have allowed the Egyptians to continue wallowing in their ignorance, corruption, and slavery. There is surely some other standard ideal more worthy of consideration and emulation by Britain in Egypt than that of concentration on the fulfilment of one obligation, the repayment of international loans, the bulk of which were risked before the Occupation. It is conceivable that there are even higher duties than the creation of vast public works, although the financial welfare of the people is dependent on these. There are the moral and educational attributes of the people to be considered, and it is regrettable that for so long they will need to be protected from their own habits and ignorance.

The worst feature of the Capitulations is that their existence is exploited by so many European races, their one purpose being to obtain personal advantages and wealth by the evasion of reasonable and just laws. In civilised countries Europeans are amenable to all the laws; in Egypt, if they are so minded, they are amenable to few. The Capitulations were never introduced to promote lawlessness, but are frequently interpreted by those Europeans whose temperament, cupidity and nationality render them impatient of restraint. The law courts daily provide evidence of this, and the bulk of the aggressors cheerfully ignore their jurisdiction.

The Public Works Department has few executive functions. It has no control over the erection of any buildings except official ones, and perhaps for the want of exercise in this particular duty it has become atrophied, for even official buildings have been known to collapse. Periodically there are collapses of dwelling-houses in Cairo and provincial

cities, and numerous lives are lost, but nothing is done to remedy this by enforcing suitable regulations. As a matter of form, plans of buildings must be submitted to the department, but after they have been further submitted to the Public Health and Fire Departments there is no power to enforce any official alteration or regulation. To give one instance: a European hotel company decided to build a huge hotel. After application they submitted their plans, and although the Public Works Department condemned the foundations and retaining walls, as shown in the plans, to be inconsistent with public safety, the report was deliberately ignored, and, by the beneficence of a Providence which especially watches over Egypt, the building still stands. Perhaps the Public Works Department was unduly anxious. During the boom a few years ago a building frenzy seized the country, and buildings were run up everywhere. There is a wilderness of half-finished buildings in Cairo rivalling that of the archæological remains of Upper Egypt, the financial crisis having stopped further operations. Huge wooden erections for entertainments, which could not be erected in any other country, are run up by Europeans with a rapidity of growth equal to Jonah's gourd; half of Cairo is thrown together with mud for mortar and sun-dried bricks, prodigally inviting calamity, but the Public Works Department is powerless to interfere. It can simply grind its teeth, revile the Capitulations which render such a thing possible in this twentieth century, and concern itself with its oppressive municipal functions of supervising chimneys for bakeries, and inspecting gas and oil engines; it also devotes its energy to the construction of official quarters and to tinkering with ancient

dwellings politely termed palaces, built by past extravagance, in order to convert them into Government offices.

In striking contrast to this helpless position in one of the most important spheres of the Public Works Department are the overworked and highly efficient Irrigation and Survey Departments. The Irrigation Department is charged with the provision and maintenance of the water supply of Egypt, for in the absence of rainfall the agriculture of the country is dependent entirely on the Nile. The responsibility is an enormous one, dealing as it does with the control of the gigantic reservoirs, and the upkeep of the banks of the Nile, the maintenance and dredging of canals, the drainage of agricultural lands, and the thousand-and-one other duties which rest upon the shoulders of the officers of this department in providing and husbanding an adequate supply of water for the country's requirements. In 1909 an army of 21,000 men was called out for the Nile corvée alone, and the anxiety of the department during the critical period of a high Nile is intense and prolonged.

In addition there is the constant careful supervision of existing works, and the construction of new undertakings, the functions of the department in this branch alone being unlimited, for the advent of water to parched and waste land means the opening up of new agricultural fields.

There is also the drainage of existing systems, and in 1909 a sum of £125,000 was spent in the dredging, remodelling, clearance and general maintenance of the drainage system of the agricultural lands of Lower Egypt. In 1910 in the same district £E.90,000 was spent on protection work against floods

and £E.137,000 on the improvement of the drainage system. Much attention was paid to the strengthening and improvement of the Nile banks, £117,000 being spent during the same year on this work alone. The references to the work of the department in Sir Eldon Gorst's reports are brief but eloquent. The operations in heightening and thickening the Assouan dam cost £176,000. Survey work was undertaken to ascertain accurately the capacity of the new reservoir and to mark out the land which will be inundated. Upon the subsidiary works of the Esneh barrage £146,000 was spent.

In Middle Egypt conversion works on the west side of the river were completed, and a further 46,880 feddans (a feddan is roughly equal to an acre) added to the converted area. In Upper Egypt £56,000 was devoted to protection against the flood, and forty-four kilometres of agricultural land opened up. The Irrigation Department is the custodian of those mighty reservoirs which British sympathy and enterprise have created on the ancient Nile, holding in readiness its life-giving and fertilising waters, on which existence, vegetable and human, in the country of Egypt absolutely depends, and on the careful distribution of which rests the agricultural salvation of the population.

Rainfalls in Egypt are too few to be of service to man, beast, or plant, and the country is therefore dependent for its existence on the water of the Nile, over which it is the duty of the Irrigation Department to maintain perpetual watch and ward. And well it fulfils that duty, as the continual growth of the agricultural prosperity of the land indicates.

The Survey Department is charged with many responsible duties, on the thorough and conscientious

discharge of which so much of the progress of the country depends. It conducts the observatory work, along with its other duties, whilst its lithographic printing department, in addition to providing for its own many wants, in a country where mapping is a regular task, gives a useful and friendly hand to other departments by meeting their numerous requirements in this direction. The new drainage plans for Cairo alone were no small order. The survey staff is not large, but what it lacks in numbers it makes up in ability and capacity for work. The most competent and highly-trained officials in the Egyptian civil service are to be found in this department, and they seem to be equally at home either in inventing new meteorological instruments, surveying alone the mighty desert, or trotting down to the Red Sea to inspect the petroleum concessions in the interests of a Government that is only too eager to grasp at any additional sources of revenue.

The Survey Department has recently accomplished a valuable work, on which it has been engaged for the last fifteen years, in the cadastral survey of Egypt. Captain H. G. Lyons, F.R.S., previous to his retirement recently from the position of Director-General of the Survey Department, published a report of over four hundred pages and with fifty illustrations dealing with this wonderful survey.

This excellent report aims at setting forth in considerable detail the progress of the work, with such statistical information as may be of interest to surveyors both in Egypt and elsewhere. The non-technical reader, however, will be well repaid by a perusal of the report, which graphically sets forth the difficulties encountered in the carrying out of a

work which has perhaps entailed closer co-operation with the Egyptian population than any other task of modern times.

The operations of measuring and recording the area of every plot of cultivated land in Egypt have extended over a period of fifteen years, from 1892 to June 1907, when the registers containing the details of plots in the province of Beni Souef were sent to the Ministry of Finance; but most of the area has been surveyed in the last nine years, when, also, the maps have been printed and published.

The main object of the cadastral survey has been the worthy one of accurately determining the area of all plots of ground in order that the land tax might be justly distributed. Had there been a longer time available for the preparation of the registers the surveyors might have been able to stay in each village to convince the inhabitants of the desirability of the survey, and their difficulties would no doubt have been considerably lessened. But there was not time, for two provinces had to be surveyed and their land-registers prepared every year, and the continual problem which faced the directors of the work was how to save time. Thus the unenlightened fellaheen continued to hinder the work, sometimes, perhaps, unwittingly, but none the less effectively. An instance might be quoted. A peasant, when enjoined to take great care of a survey mark which had been placed upon his land, dug up the mark when the surveyor was gone, quite unconscious that it was the position of the mark which was the important point, and took it to his house, so that his watch over it might be all the more effective.

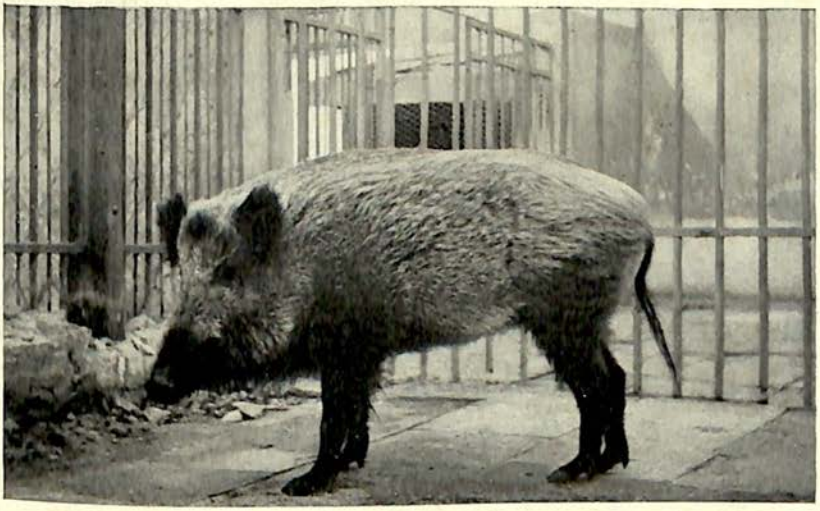
In the task of measuring Egypt's seven million feddans of agricultural land, locating each holding,

determining its area and recording the owner, in a country where half the holdings average a feddan in size, and where the boundaries between holdings are rarely indicated by visible marks, the surveyors started off with practically no legal powers. Landowners could not be compelled to be present at the time of survey to indicate the boundaries of their land; they could not be compelled to show their title-deeds; nor could the surveyors decide, on the evidence produced, cases of disputed ownership which might arise. Survey marks were removed to an enormous extent, and though this was a punishable offence, the difficulty of catching the offenders on the one hand, and the absence of malicious intent on the other, combined to render the power ineffective. Sometimes the village authorities helped the survey, sometimes they did not, though they were supposed to render all possible assistance. The villagers could not understand that the survey operations were to be performed without cost to them, and the fact that they felt it their duty to pay the surveyor to record their land, either correctly or the reverse as the case might be, did not simplify matters. The annual Nile flood was also a retarding factor, as in Upper Egypt the subsidence of the inundation had to be awaited before land could be measured; whilst all over Egypt operations were greatly hindered during the time the land was under maize and cotton. Absentee landlordism, too, caused a great deal of difficulty, for the landlord would refer the surveyor for information to his bailiff, usually the tenant, who often pointed out the wrong boundaries, or even produced false title-deeds to show that the land belonged to himself. An example of absentee landlordism is quoted in the case of a large landowner whose land was

situated not two hours by train from Cairo, where he lived. He requested the Survey Department to remove those who had, so he was informed by his bailiff, encroached on his property, but he himself had not visited it for fifteen years. Such cases are by no means isolated.

The cost of mapping the whole of the cultivated land of the country and preparing the land registers was £E.444,424; this included the observation of networks of second and third-order triangulation, which are used to control all other surveys. On the average this works out at about five piastres (one shilling) per feddan for triangulation, survey, writing up the land-registers, etc. It is interesting to compare this cost with that of the old cadastral survey, made between 1878 and 1888, the cost of which was no less than twenty-five piastres (five shillings) per feddan. The land-tax in 1907 amounted to £E.5,060,000, so that the whole cost of the recent survey was about nine per cent. of a single year's land-tax.

The total number of map-sheets printed has been 20,310, and the edition of each sheet has varied from thirty at the commencement to 100 at the present date. Thus it may be said that approximately a million and a half copies of the various sheets of the cadastral map of Egypt have been printed. These map-sheets are supplied to the public at a cost of one shilling each. The largest number of sheets published in any year was in 1901, when 4,326 sheets, or 432,600 copies, were printed. It is interesting to note that during 1908, 82,008 cadastral map-sheets were issued to Government administrations, and 17,685 were purchased by the public, though it has not yet been possible to establish local survey



EGYPTIAN WILD PIG: THE LAST SURVIVOR OF ITS RACE.

THE ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS, CAIRO: YOUNG ALLIGATORS.

Photos by Captain C. Flower.

offices with a stock of maps in various parts of the country.

For more than fifty centuries the cultivable lands of Egypt have been measured and recorded, but it is only now that the registers in which this is done have been supplemented by a complete set of maps on which the shape of each property is shown.

There are inaccuracies in the survey, as the report readily admits, for the age of miracles is past, and it would be a wonder indeed if, in face of the tremendous obstacles that have been encountered, the work were perfect.

Captain Lyons is to be congratulated on his splendid report. It is most absorbing to read the results of the author's extensive research into the methods of land measurement in former days, and then to pass from these hoary times, with their happy-go-lucky methods, to the Roda base line measurement, which is calculated to have a probable error of no more than one part in 1,600,000. It is, moreover, of the utmost interest to read how the surveyors continually pushed on, dispensing with every error that could possibly be avoided, and working from dawn to sunset in the stifling heat of Upper Egypt with a staff that had to be trained to the work as they went along. We thus see how the very many difficulties, some usual, some peculiar to the country, have been overcome, and a cadastral survey completed which may be compared favourably with those of other countries in respect of accuracy.

Another department that is being run under difficulties inconceivable to the stay-at-home Englishman is the much maligned Egyptian Post Office. In this case the Capitulations are not called in to furnish difficulties in the path of advancement, but

the department suffers silently with others in Egypt in the restriction of judicious expenditure which would make for efficiency. The postmen, like those of India and the Far East, are natives, but if anything, they are more irresponsible. Time, in the postal service standard of efficiency, is the great healer, for as the education of the people progresses so a better type of subordinate may be evolved. But in Egypt the task is not light, even for one of the rank and file, for in the big cities with large European populations, letters are addressed in every conceivable language to be deciphered by the hard-worked and under-manned postal staff. One Englishman, Mr. Williams, a clever, self-taught linguist, directs the Cairo post office, with its big staff, the bulk of whom are natives, and he is called upon to exercise a personal supervision and to discharge duties that in another civilised country would give employment for a dozen responsible men with their clerks. And while he is speaking to you—and one never met a more approachable and more courteous official,—his telephone is clanging at his elbow, with queries in innumerable languages from the public "who want to know, yer know." The same applies to Borton Bey, the Postmaster-General at Alexandria. One often wonders what would happen to the Egyptian Postal Service if these two hard-working, painstaking directors were removed.

The post office gross receipts for 1910 showed an increase of £E.10,500 over 1909, which was a record figure, the latter having shown an increase of £16,075 over the previous year. The working expenses in 1910 amounted to £267,000, against £262,740 in the previous year. The Postmaster-General earnestly hopes money will soon be forthcoming for further

extensions of postal facilities, which in his opinion are badly needed, and have been practically suspended for the last two years owing to lack of funds.

The number of depositors in the Postal Savings Bank numbered 104,100 in 1910, against 92,900 in 1909, which was a growth of 6,000 over 1908. The fellah, for whom it was principally intended, prefers to hoard his gold, for he still shows no inclination to make use of the bank. The total sum due to depositors was £456,000. The Children's Savings Bank, an admirable institution, now represents 6,177 depositors.

The parcels department is an important one and is rapidly growing, no less than 84,000 more parcels being dealt with in 1909 than in the previous year. A recent innovation is the extension of the cash-on-delivery parcel post system with Great Britain, and although the extension of this system (which has been in operation in Egypt for twenty years) was brought about chiefly by the agitation of the British Press in Egypt, the Egyptian Government readily acquiescing when it found the demand to be general, the results so far have been disappointing. A considerable trade between Egypt and the Continent has been built up by means of this system, which appeared to give general satisfaction to producer and buyer alike, and it was agreed that British exporters should not be denied the same chances of increasing their trade. The methods are easy and involve no risk on the part of either purchaser or exporter, as in the case of the ordinary parcels post. The customer orders the goods by mail and the exporter in England hands the parcel containing the goods with his invoice to the nearest English post office. On arrival in Egypt the goods undergo a special Customs examination,

which by avoiding inconvenience facilitates delivery. The post office dispatch to the consignee a special form notifying that person that a parcel awaits delivery on which there is a specified sum to pay, and the postal authorities only deliver for cash, and failing payment the goods are returned.

The results are disappointing for two reasons; one being that the British producer has displayed neither the interest nor enterprise expected of him by availing himself of such excellent facilities for especially interesting himself in Egypt as a new market for his goods, and the Egyptian dealers on their part, as the Postmaster-General points out, do not appear to advertise direct consignments in the British Press, and thus opportunities for increased business on a cash basis are neglected by both. The British manufacturers certainly need waking up, for the Continental trade by means of this system runs into large and annually increasing figures, covering as it does the importation of all classes of goods. In 1910 the service with Great Britain showed an improvement, 6,909 parcels, worth £10,555, being handled, as against 2,773, worth £4,355, in 1909.

Another useful but little known branch of the post office is that dealing with collection orders, by means of which a firm or person may, by sending their accounts in duplicate to the post office, collect their accounts from up-country customers. The post office presents the accounts at the destination for collection, and on receipt of the money, pays it to the firm to whom it is owing, and who authorised its collection, less a moderate commission. It is a very good service indeed and saves inconvenience and evasion on the one part and helps to keep

down the outstanding accounts and possible bad debts of the firm supplying goods on the other. Subscriptions to a club, thus collected for the first time, appear to have given unusually good results.

The entire staff of the Egyptian Post Office in 1909 numbered 2,704, a small staff indeed compared with the country's needs and requirements. The Postmaster-General and his principal assistants are Englishmen. This staff handled 75,000,000 letters, cards, samples, etc., in 1910, and 1,000,000 parcels.

The State Telegraphs form part of the railway administration, and are not under the direction of the post office. The service is good and cheap. The gross receipts of this department in 1910 amounted to £E.115,000, as against £E.107,700 in 1909, and the expenditure to £E.103,000 in 1910, as against £104,000 in 1909, these latter being practically the same figures as in 1908.

In a previous chapter reference was made to the work of the Prisons Department, and it may be interesting to give a few facts concerning it. Coles Pasha, the Inspector-General of Prisons in Egypt, in his report for 1908, in referring to the value of the work executed by prisoners, mentions that during 1908 in England the Controller of English Prison Industries reported that £98,000 was the value of the goods manufactured by 12,000 prisoners. The amount received by the Egyptian prison industries during the same years was £48,000, the average number of prisoners employed in industries in Egyptian prisons being 7,488. This compares more than favourably with the return on the British products, although the Egyptian regulations compelled the prison authorities to sell in some instances at 10 to 15 per cent.

below cost. In Egypt an average number of 1740 prisoners are employed on Government services for whom no charge is made.

The gross earnings of the prison industries in Egypt for 1910 amounted to £E.44,150, against £E.44,601 in 1909 and £48,122 in 1908, the latter showing a net profit of £12,254. The cost per prisoner for twelve months in 1908 worked out at £9, of which establishment charges, inclusive of instructors and foremen, are £3, rations being about £4 3*s.* for twelve months. In 1910 the cost rose to £12. The total number of prisoners in 1910 amounted to 12,449 (of whom 351 were women), compared with 13,325 in 1909.

Allusion has already been made to the variety and quality of the products of the prisons, and the result of this cannot but be beneficial to a country like Egypt. It is curious to note that native opinion regarding this matter favours a return to former methods which were chiefly instrumental in the production of criminals, and their encouragement in habitual crimes. It is argued that the primary reason for the existence of a prison is that it shall strike into the hearts of criminals a terror that shall act as a deterrent to their further evil-doing. Now it is said in Egypt, as in other lands, that the prison has become too comfortable. The prisoner, especially if he be of the lower class, finds that he is better off there than in his own home. He is visited at intervals by the doctor, and if he is indisposed he is removed to the infirmary or hospital, and there cared for. Above all, he has regular hours of work and his food is plentiful and good. Further, he is taught a trade. This does not, according to popular opinion, tend to impress the prisoner with any sense of dread of prison

life, and therefore the usefulness of prisons in general is questioned.

The usual wail goes up even from the Inspector-General in his allotted sphere in the reform and development of modern Egypt "in imparting knowledge and instruction to a large number of prisoners who were hitherto useless, ignorant, and dangerous citizens," a wail which now characterises all Government departments, for the gift of more funds, and he points out that an expenditure of £E.30,000 per annum is required for the next ten years to complete existing establishments and to build the smaller prisons.

The financial authorities, he understands, have decided that for the present no more grants are to be given for prisons, as it is considered that the department has had more than its share. It is true that during the past ten years a sum of £E.463,031 has been expended on prisons, etc. This is undoubtedly a large amount, but the building of ten first-class central prisons and a reformatory have been commenced, and upwards of 13,000 prisoners are accommodated on more or less civilised lines, though not a single establishment can be said to be completed.

"I have no wish," he writes, "to dictate a financial policy, but it must be remembered that prisons and lunatic asylums are perhaps the only establishments which require special buildings. As long, therefore, as the tribunals continue to send thousands of persons annually to prison, it appears to me that this department has the first call on the Treasury."

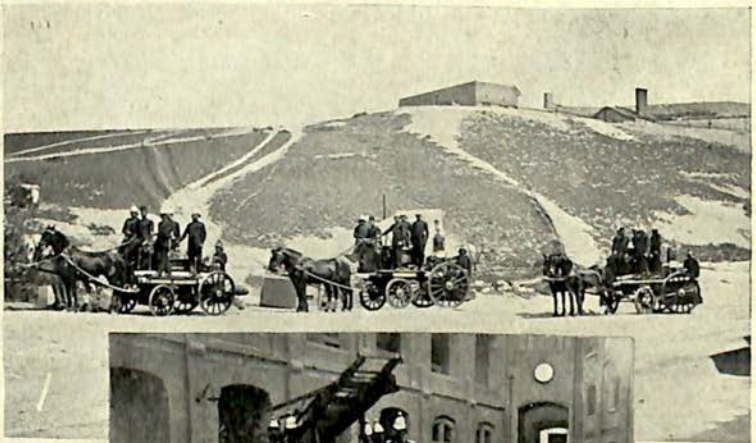
Another department in Egypt which has won general respect and admiration for its efficiency is

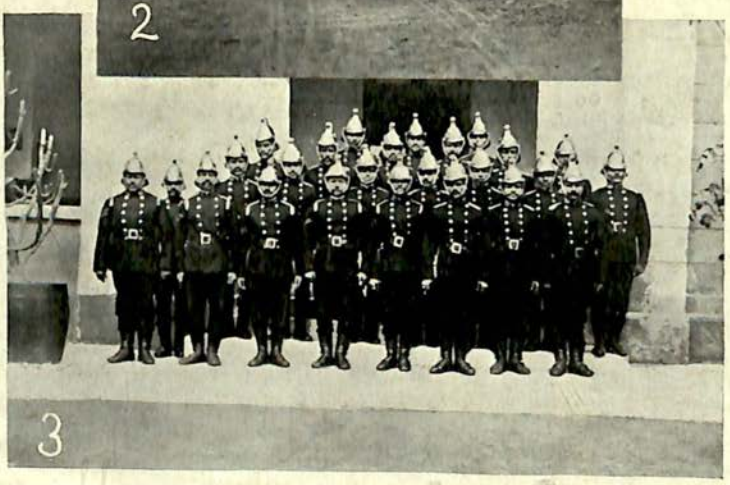
that of the fire brigade, which in Alexandria is under the direction of the municipality with Hopkinson Pasha as chief officer and Superintendent E. Waller as second officer, and which at Cairo is attached to the police department, with Captain Blake as superintendent. The Alexandria Brigade does not receive the financial support it should do from the municipality, nor do the foreign insurance companies in any way contribute to its maintenance, which they certainly should be compelled to do. There is not in Alexandria "a single fire station worthy of the name. Every one has been extemporised from existing buildings in the cheapest possible manner," with disastrous results. Notwithstanding this niggardly and injudicious treatment the Alexandria brigade has, with its staff of Egyptian firemen under British training and direction, reached a very high state of efficiency which would compare favourably with many European brigades. The strength of the brigade of all ranks is 138.

At the last annual inspection and display, which was in every respect a most creditable performance, the brigade rivalled the famous Kansas City Fire Brigade, in its Crystal Palace display, by the horses being so perfectly trained that on the beating of a gong they dashed through the doors from the stables to their places at the horse fire-escape.

The manœuvres commenced with a hand-escape and hose-reel drill, to illustrate life-saving with a small escape pushed by firemen and the method of running out hose from reels. This was accomplished in 1 minute and 30 seconds.

The one-man manual drill is always a test of a fireman's efficiency, this being keenly contested for by members of the home brigades; 1 minute 7





THE EGYPTIAN FIRE BRIGADES.

(1) Fire Engines (Alexandria). (2) Combined Motor-Pump (Cairo).
(3) A Group of Firemen (Alexandria).

seconds was the very creditable performance of the Arab fireman, upon a far from up-to-date engine.

The four-men manual drill, concluding with hitting a target, occupied 2 minutes 9 seconds.

Life-saving methods are naturally intensely interesting, and those carried out by the Alexandria Fire Brigade were exceptionally smart performances.

With three short ladders and a jumping sheet, valuable lives could be saved from a first storey window in 1 minute 28 seconds.

A four-men hydrant drill is illustrated, showing how to deal with a fire when only one hydrant is available, including lengthening and replacing a supposed burst length of hose. This took 1 minute 8 seconds.

The pompier ladders, for climbing from floor to floor by means of a hooked pole, were first introduced for the French brigades, and have since been adopted by the English authorities. Their use illustrates how rescues can be accomplished from a floor lower than that which the men are on, and also emergency escapes for the firemen, supposing the staircase has collapsed. This exhibition was much appreciated.

The usual steamer drills with various deliveries were all well executed, but one of the features was the display of the 82-foot ladder, showing the moving of the ladder without altering the position of the carriage, while at a height of 60 feet a 1¼-inch jet was being thrown by the large steamer from the water tower.

A two-men drill with three lengths of hose, branch pipe and hydrant, was accomplished in 39 seconds, this including hitting a target.

Unlike the Alexandria brigade, the headquarters of the Cairo brigade are a fine modern building, specially erected for the purpose and well equipped with all

the latest fire-extinguishing appliances, including powerful motor-propelled and horse-drawn steamers. There are, of course, branch stations in various districts, where engines are kept in constant readiness and the appliances are as well kept as in any London station. The Egyptian firemen are a specially selected stalwart and active body of men, who seem to have imbibed from their English officers the spirit and dash of the fireman, and an efficiency from constant drill and experience which are the striking and admirable characteristics of the London brigade. The engines and escapes dash along through the busy streets, congested with traffic, in much the same style as in London, the firemen, in their glittering brass helmets, making a striking picture, and attracting, as elsewhere, crowds of people to the scene of the outbreak. Occasionally of late they have had a little variation and recreation in being called upon to assist the police by playing upon mobs of stupid schoolboys assisting in Nationalist demonstrations, and even upon the Nationalist agitators themselves, in every case with marked success, the pluck of the demonstrators speedily oozing away under the shower of water from the hose, amid the jeers and laughter of the firemen. The reason given for their retreat by the demonstrators and rioters was that the water damaged their tarbushes, and they fled to protect these. To such an expedient has a great political cause fallen! It was astonishing, however, to witness the invariable effect of the fire-hose on the political ardour of the high-souled Nationalist "fighting," in the language of *Al Lewa*, his pet journal, "for the freedom and emancipation of an oppressed people." The fire brigades of Egypt leave nothing to be desired in pluck and efficiency, but, in

instances, as at Alexandria, they are worthy of better support from those who have the most to gain from their preparedness—the European insurance agents, whose revenue is drawn from the country in which they reside and to which they contribute practically nothing in direct taxation. What applies to the fire brigades in this respect applies also to the police, whose duty it is to protect the foreigner, although the latter does not assist by any direct taxation in their provision and maintenance.

CHAPTER VIII

FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL

EGYPT to-day is still suffering severely from the disastrous effects of the financial crisis of 1907, and it is estimated by those competent to judge that the country will continue to feel the effects of the crisis for at least another five years to come. Others, more cautious in their judgment, place the revival at ten years, but a succession of good cotton crops, such as that of last year, and the absence of political agitation, will be the best means of bringing prosperity back to the country and restoring confidence and credit. What Egypt needs essentially now is money, to be expended judiciously in providing for its growth and development, industrially, commercially and administratively, and so establishing its credit and expanding its resources that the visitation of another financial crisis such as that which nearly ruined the country in 1907 will be averted. There are not wanting those who regard the recent crisis as a blessing in disguise, and who do not hesitate to state that what occurred was but the inevitable result of over-confidence and rash speculation in a country which had been suddenly visited with unprecedented prosperity. Egypt was booming to such an excessive extent that over-speculation and over-excitement invited disaster, which came in due course. As a result, they claim, the country has been purged of

mushroom financiers and speculators, and that when it has fully recovered from the shock it will be the better for having gone through the fire. Commerce and agriculture will henceforth be conducted on a sounder and more substantial basis. From the point of view of those prophets whose successful Josephian gift of prophecy and independence of commerce enabled them to tide over the crisis which wrought absolute ruin to so many, and left others in straitened circumstances for many years to come, this may be extremely consoling and unctuous. The crisis touched the pockets of the official element but little, except in the case of those who were unfortunate enough to have invested their savings in local securities, which they had to sacrifice as the banks closed down on them. But there were few Europeans and natives engaged in commerce in Egypt whom the crisis did not affect more or less seriously, and many old and well-established firms suffered severely with the rest. At a period when speculation was rife, everyone affected by the fever of investment, and fortunes made rapidly, most people bought shares, and raised money on them to purchase others, with the result that when the smash came there were few who were not badly hit. The banks have been universally blamed because they terminated somewhat abruptly the latitude they had previously extended; the collapse of one bank at Alexandria led to all the trouble, and a policy of timidity which then began to characterise the banks generally completed the disaster. But whatever the causes were which led to wholesale panic and disaster (and the banks conceivably have their own interests to guard), the land to-day continues to feel the effect keenly, and there are not

wanting level-headed, far-seeing business men who believe that whilst Egypt will continue to progress the opportunities of making money which existed before the crisis have gone never to return. It has undoubtedly been a serious check to the commerce and agriculture of the country, and a succession of bad crops would paralyse them.

To-day in Egypt there is the general cry of want of business, and the share market report for the last three years has simply been a record of prolonged stagnation, with many really good sound investments going begging for the want of purchasers. There is no money in the land, and although new credit banks are founded, and loans totalling some millions of pounds are reported periodically to have been completed, they appear to make but little impression on the country. Somebody must conceivably be able to secure money for business purposes, but the usual cry is want of capital and want of trade. The annual statistics published by an optimistic Administration, which does not feel the general pinch of poverty and stagnation pervading the country, may show that the trade of Egypt continues to increase and its revenues continue their upward progress, but this is distinctly not the experience of the commercial community, who are still suffering severely from the after-effects of the crisis. Not a few have come to the conclusion that for all, apart from concessionnaires, usurers, officials and tourists, and those who cater for the latter, the country is played out, and, like the inhabitants of a mushroom mining camp in the Far West, they are making an exodus for more congenial climes. Egypt, in the opinion of those who have its permanent welfare at heart, may well be spared these, but there are many who would follow their

example were their fortunes, for good or bad, not bound down by their investments in the country. It is abundantly evident that from a business view it is not the country that it was, and for the European to secure a substantial and satisfactory return for his capital, patience and hard work are essentials, added to an existence in a climate and surroundings which at seasons carry considerable risks. There are certain races who will continue to make Egypt their abiding place and who in business will prosper, though perhaps not to such an extent or as rapidly as formerly; these are races which have always exploited the country, namely, the Eastern Jews and Levantines, whose methods and conceptions of business morality are somewhat more flexible than those of the European traders, whose presence in increased numbers it was hoped would continue to be attracted, as their wealth, stability, and integrity played so useful and essential a part in the regeneration of this land of promise. The introduction of this desirable class has been checked for many years to come, which is a serious misfortune to the country, for it can well dispense with many of the wily and unscrupulous Levantines, who thrive on the ignorance and simplicity of the natives, and whose code of honour so manifestly is—that all things which are expedient are lawful.

To an unprejudiced view it would appear that the crisis has undoubtedly exercised a wholesome, purging influence, and such an experience had to be bought, though somewhat dearly. It has had the misfortune for the country to hit legitimate traders very hard, and many promising concerns have failed through want of sufficient capital to stem the after-effects of the torrent. But there is every reason for

believing that with the steady increase in agriculture, by the opening up of new lands and the improved working of those under cultivation by the careful growth of cotton and the establishment of other staple crops, to insure if possible against a bad cotton year, the country will continue to make progress, and a sound commerce within the needs of the population will continue. Steps have been taken to guard as much as possible against a recurrence of bourse speculation, but the best remedy for this is the bitter experience of the many residents who suffered during recent years by inflated investments and unscrupulous brokers. Stocks will no doubt find an honest level, and at that there are many which offer sound and profitable securities. In addition there must be an end to the unwise native political fermentation, which reacts so unfavourably on the country in checking the introduction of foreign capital into Egypt, by the air of instability which it excites. A mistaken impression this undoubtedly is to anyone who knows the depth of Nationalist feeling and the sentiment of the bulk of the population. But people who might invest are unfortunately influenced to the contrary by repeated newspaper reports of the indications of unrest due to Nationalist propaganda and of the unbridled language peculiar to the Oriental, thirsting for political freedom, and prepared to go to any rhetorical lengths to support his cause and prove his case. On the other hand, the public may feel assured that the Government will continue its patient task of building up a new Egypt from the best materials at its disposal. British and representative Egyptian public opinion can assist and facilitate that task, for fair criticism is reasonable, helpful, and essential even in Egypt. It would be

well, since the country has been brought by Lord Cromer to a successful stage of administrative prosperity, if the British public took a more active interest in Egypt, providing that interest is based on an intelligent knowledge of the country, its past and its requirements.

In 1902 Lord Cromer, in his annual report, presented his balance sheet for Egypt from 1882 to 1901 inclusive, showing the total receipts for that period to have been £224,206,151, which, working it out at an annual expenditure on nine and a half million people of the country, averaged £4,200,000.

As the result of the Anglo-French agreement of 1904, Egypt has now the disposal of her own revenues. The celebrated Caisse de la Dette is doomed to extinction in 1912. The land revenues from the provinces having been given as security to the guaranteed, privileged and unified debts must not be reduced by the Egyptian Government below £4,000,000 without the consent of the Powers. The Domains loan cannot be redeemed before January 1, 1915, and in this year Ismail Pasha's insolvency will be finally wiped out, the land which was mortgaged through his extravagance being returned, through the disposal of the domains, to the people.

Concerning the Egyptian debt, the Marquis of Lansdowne, in his Note on the Anglo-French Agreement, pointed out that "France and Great Britain between them hold nearly the whole of the Egyptian debt, the amount of the debt held in Austria, Germany, Italy and Russia being quite insignificant."

On December 31, 1909, the total outstanding capital of the debt was £95,240,740, and the charge on account of interest and sinking fund £E.3,579,000. Debt to the amount of £268,540 was paid off during

the year. The total capital, therefore, amounted to £94,972,200 on December 31, 1910, and the annual charge to £E.3,571,000.

It has, however, to be borne in mind that stock to the extent of £5,821,140 is held either by the Government or by the commissioners of the debt. The interest on this amount is £E.213,000.

The total amount of debt in the hands of the public was, therefore, at the end of 1909 £89,151,060, involving an annual charge of £3,358,000.

The estimates for 1906—the year before the crisis—amounted to £13,500,000, with an estimated surplus of £500,000.

The estimates for 1910 were, revenue £15,350,000, and expenditure £15,150,000, showing a surplus of £200,000, but the actual accounts showed revenue as £15,965,000, expenditure £14,414,000; giving an actual surplus of £1,551,000, or £615,000 in excess of the estimates. As compared with that collected in 1909, there was an increase in revenue of £E.563,000. "For the first time," said Sir Eldon Gorst, "since the financial crisis of 1907 the revenue is again showing expansion." The following principal sources of income show the variations :—

	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
Customs duty . .	2,142,000	1,982,000	1,799,000	1,904,000
Railway receipts .	3,565,000	3,464,000	3,289,000	3,439,000
Tobacco . . .	1,648,000	1,688,000	1,656,000	1,591,000
TOTAL . .	7,355,000	7,134,000	6.744,000	6,934,000

The reserve fund showed on January 1, 1910, a total of £6,360,884, which, after provision for depreciation in value of securities in which the fund

is invested, left an estimated balance on December 31, 1909, of £5,403,614. Of this balance a sum of about £1,439,522 was pledged on account of credits granted but not then expended.

Since the funds in the hands of the Caisse de la Dette were transferred to the Government in accordance with the terms of the decree of November 28, 1904, no Egyptian Government bonds have been sold with a view to the investment of the proceeds in other securities. When a portion of the Government's cash balances was invested in 1906, British and Indian Government securities were bought, to avoid the disadvantages attendant on too narrow a field of investment.

The credits on the Reserve Fund for 1911 were as follows :—

	£E.
Irrigation	679,500
Drainage of Cairo	220,212
Government's share in the cost of the return to Nile water for the supply of Cairo	97,848
Railways	322,000
Advances to municipalities and local commissions for the purpose of lighting and water installations	73,500
Miscellaneous	12,940
TOTAL	1,406,000

With regard to the Domains administration; the value of bonds in circulation on January 1, 1910, was £E.618,000, and on December 31, 1910, £E.446,000, £E.172,000 having been paid off in the course of the year out of the surplus revenue and sale of land. The bonds were guaranteed as follows :—(1) Annuities due from sales of land already effected, £E.205,000; (2) the excess of revenue over expenditure in 1910, approximately £E.187,000, as compared with a surplus of £E.118,000 in 1908; and

(3) 144,748 feddans of land officially valued at about £E.3,000,000.

In his report for 1910 the late Sir Eldon Gorst quoted the following from the report of the Official Adviser to the Ministry of Finance on the Budget for 1911:— "Turning to the Government finances it will be found that these are on the whole satisfactory. It is important, for more than one reason, that a thoroughly sound situation should be secured. The unpledged balance of the reserve fund has now fallen nearly to the minimum of £E.2,000,000, which the Government has set as the limit below which it should not be allowed to fall, except in the case of emergency. This has happened in approximate coincidence with the completion of the first part of the great programme of irrigation work by which the basins of Middle Egypt have been converted to perennial irrigation with an enormous enhancement of the value of the land concerned. On the other hand, the project of heightening the Assouan Dam is only half accomplished, and heavy expenditure for its completion and for the irrigation works necessary to the utilisation of the water which will be stored there must, in the course of future years, be provided for. Much requires to be done also for the improvement of the drainage of the Delta. The Government is committed to heavy expenditure for many years to come for the drainage of Cairo. The railways need large sums annually to enable them to bring the system up to modern requirements, to build new lines, and to replace old bridges by structures adapted to the weight of modern rolling stock. The municipalities require substantial advances for water and lighting installations, and for the paving and draining of their towns.

"All these demands must now be met out of the Government's annual revenue, and, in addition, if possible, something must be put by for the reconstruction of the reserve fund itself.

"The Egyptian Government is, as regards powers of taxation and borrowing, somewhat peculiarly situated, and its finances do not possess the elasticity nor offer the resources which are to be found in other countries. It is for these reasons particularly desirable that its financial position should be as strong as possible, and that it should see its way to meet the heavy expenditure indicated above without any difficulty.

"The proposal made two years ago by the Suez Canal Company for an extension of its concession in return for a large payment in the immediate future and certain ulterior advantages offered an opportunity of greatly reinforcing the financial situation. The rejection of the scheme has thrown the Government back on its own unaided resources. The various undertakings indicated above will be carried out, but they must be carried out more slowly than some might desire. The need for strict economy and a reduction of expenditure, wherever possible, is sufficiently clear, and every effort has been made to attain these ends.

"It may thus be said that the Egyptian Government is now living within its income, and at the same time providing out of that income for a substantial amount of capital expenditure."

The table on the next page will be of interest as showing the gradual decrease during recent years of the total expenditure of the Government.

Dealing with trade we find that in 1883 the com-

Year.	Annual Budget		Credits on Reserve Fund.	Total.
	Ordinary Expenditure.	Special Expenditure.		
	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
1907 . . .	13,230,923	1,049,490	4,646,498	18,926,911
1908 . . .	13,650,124	758,020	3,600,995	18,009,139
1909 . . .	13,568,428	673,174	2,658,413	16,900,015
1910 . . .	13,849,850	564,649	2,533,583	16,948,082
1911 (budget) .	14,275,000	725,000	1,406,000	16,406,000

merce of Egypt amounted to imports, £7,866,042; exports, £12,177,065.

In 1904 the figures had increased to imports, £20,559,588; exports, £20,811,040, the trade with Great Britain that year being, imports, £6,985,479; exports, £10,900,282; Turkey coming second with imports, £2,432,456, and France with exports, £1,601,664.

In 1908 the imports were valued at £25,100,000, as against £26,121,000 in 1907, a decrease of £1,021,000, or 4 per cent., and the exports at £21,316,000, as compared with £28,013,000 in 1907, a decrease of £6,697,000, or 24 per cent. The Customs receipts in 1908 totalled £3,669,988; being £121,309 less than 1907, but exceeding the figures of all previous years.

In 1910 the Customs receipts amounted to £E.3,502,141, made up as follows:—

	£E.
Imports	1,598,494
Exports	279,581
Other receipts	32,719
Tobacco	1,591,347
TOTAL . .	3,502,141

This figure is less than that of 1909 by £E.46,489.

AVERAGE OF TRIENNIAL PERIODS (000's omitted).

Periods.		1888 to 1890.	1891 to 1893.	1894 to 1896.	1897 to 1899.	1900 to 1902.	1903 to 1905.	1906 to 1908.
Cotton exported—								
Quantity	Kantars	3,075	4,609	5,280	6,130	6,067	6,009	6,635
Price per kantar	£E.	2·95	2·19	2·01	1·81	2·45	3·07	3·54
Value	£E.	9,063	10,102	10,592	11,102	14,857	18 472	23,466
Total exports of merchandise	£E.	13,507	15,707	14,875	15,706	19,959	23,605	28,929
Total imports of merchandise	£E.	7,613	9,004	9,162	11,026	14,724	19,626	25,077
Excess of exports over imports of merchandise	£E.	5,894	6,703	5,713	4,680	5,235	3,979	3,852
Excess of imports over exports of specie	£E.	73	836	1,357	1,468	1,704	4,478	3,192
Total excess of exports over imports	£E.	5,821	5,867	4,356	3,212	3,531	501	660
Foreign charges and Government operations in securities	£E.	4,800	5,600	5,500	5,500	4,600	6,500	3,600
Balance of Trade, i.e.—								
Excess of exports over imports and foreign charges	£E.	1,021	267	—	—	—	—	—
or,								
Excess of imports and foreign charges over exports	£E.	—	—	1,144	2,288	1,069	5,999	2,940

In 1910 the value of imports (excluding specie) was £E.23,553,000, an increase of £E.1,323,000, or 6 per cent., compared with 1909. The value of exports in 1910 (excluding specie) was £E.28,944,000, an increase of £E.2,868,000, or 11 per cent., over 1909.

The quantity of gold and silver exported in bars and jewellery decreased from £85,700 in 1909 to £49,000 in 1910, "a sign," wrote Sir Eldon Gorst, "that the ill-effects of the financial crisis, which penetrated down to the lower strata of society, in 1909, are beginning to wear off."

The table on the previous page shows the movements in Egypt's foreign trade during twenty-one years from 1888 to 1908 inclusive, divided into triennial periods (000's omitted).

In the annual report for 1910 the following interesting tables, prepared by Mr. R. H. Clive, of the British Agency in Egypt, are given showing the share of the principal countries in the trade of Egypt, and it will be at once seen that Great Britain is by a long way the best customer of Egypt, both in imports and exports.

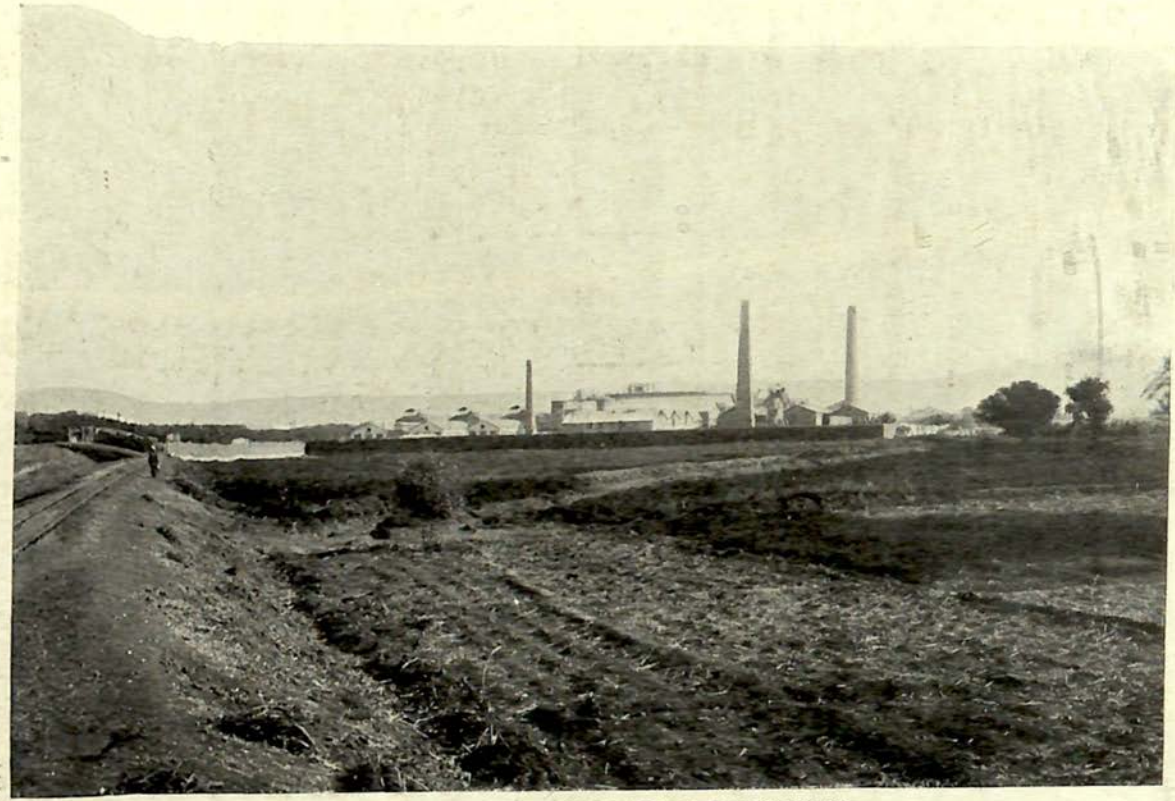
Imports.

The figures of the import trade for the last two years are—

	£E.
1909	22,230,000
1910	23,553,000

and the share of the principal countries is shown in the table on the opposite page.

It will be seen from the above table that imports from Great Britain have increased by £E.567,000, or 1 per cent. On the other hand there is a slight



THE SUGAR INDUSTRY AT NAG-HAMADI, UPPER EGYPT.

	1910.	Proportion of total Imports.	1909.	Proportion of total Imports.
	£E.	Per cent.	£E.	Per cent.
Great Britain	7,311,000	31·3	6,744,000	30·3
Possessions in Mediterranean	169,000	0·6	174,000	0·8
Possessions in Far East	967,000	4·0	975,000	4·4
Turkey	2,905,000	12·3	2,642,000	11·8
France	2,652,000	11·3	2,899,000	13·0
Austria	1,646,000	7·0	1,433,000	6·4
Germany	1,263,000	5·4	1,129,000	5·7
Italy	1,169,000	5·0	997,000	4·4

decrease in imports from British possessions, both in the Mediterranean and in the Far East. The share of the British Empire was £E.8,447,000, or 36 per cent. of the total, as against £E.7,892,000, or 35½ per cent., in 1909.

Exports.

The total amount of exports from Egypt in 1910, including cigarettes, was £E.28,944,461, compared with £E.26,076,239 in 1909.

The figures for the principal countries are as follows :

	1910.		1909.	
	Proportion of Total.	Amount.	Proportion of Total.	Amount.
	Per cent.	£E.	Per cent.	£E.
1. Great Britain	49·9	14,343,381	50·2	13,099,910
1. British possessions in Mediterranean	0·0½	10,702	0·0½	11,670
1. British possessions in Far East	0·3	82,822	0·4	110,175
2. Germany	10·7	3,088,632	9·5	2,481,826
3. France	8·5	2,474,026	8·8	2,298,541
4. America	6·6	1,892,025	7·3	1,902,498
5. Russia	5·7	1,659,641	5·8	1,515,614
6. Austria-Hungary	5·0	1,434,821	5·0	1,291,848

From the following table it will be seen that the increase is due not to the extra amount of cotton exported, but to the greatly enhanced price at which the cotton was sold :—

		Total.		Great Britain.	
		Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
		Kantars.	£E.	Kantars.	£E.
Cotton . .	1910	6,009,406	24,241,712	3,034,126	12,065,757
,,	1909	6,952,480	21,477,745	3,407,445	10,524,015
		Ardebs.		Ardebs.	
Cotton seed .	1910	2,673,816	2,159,993	1,765,746	1,417,746
,, ,,	1909	3,308,118	2,432,939	2,544,919	1,868,550

N.B.—1 kantar = 44·928 kilogrammes.
1 ardeb = 198 litres.

The other chief articles of export to Great Britain were as follows :—

	1910.	1909.
	£E.	£E.
Oil cake	279,350	240,044
Onions	146,114	115,855
Eggs	111,581	126,572
Wool	96,113	58,290
Cigarettes	58,641	63,422

In June 1905, the number of companies which existed in Egypt was 155, of which seventy were formed after 1900. Of these eighty-nine companies had a capital of £10,000 wholly or partly held in Egypt, with a nominal capital in shares and debentures of £42,703,200, of which it was roughly estimated £11,234,173 was held in Egypt. Of these eighty-nine, banks numbered eight, financial or land investment twenty-nine, industrial and commercial thirty-eight, railways and business eight, navigation and waterworks six.

In January 1910, the number of companies in Egypt was 210; of these banks numbered twenty-five, but one old-established British institution, the Bank of Egypt, Ltd., went into liquidation in 1911.

In a "Selection of Egyptian Securities," published in March 1911 by Messrs. Reid and Barnard, the well-known Egyptian stock and share brokers, the following extracts show the heavy shrinkage in values:—

The Egyptian Investment and Agency Co., Ltd. (1905). Capital, £200,000; 189,317 shares of £1 each issued.

	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends . . .	10%	20%	nil	nil	nil

Highest, 1906, $1\frac{11}{16}$; lowest, 1910, $\frac{5}{16}$.

The Egyptian Markets, Ltd. (1898). Capital, £274,000, of which 174,700 £1 ordinary shares fully paid.

	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends . . .	5%	7%	$6\frac{1}{2}$%	$2\frac{1}{2}$%	7%

Highest, 1907, 31*s.* 3*d.*; lowest, 1909, 18*s.* $1\frac{1}{2}$*d.* Present price, 22*s.* 6*d.*

Hamburg and Anglo-American Nile Co. Capital, £130,000; nominal value of £4 each.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
Dividends . . .	$5\frac{1}{2}$%	4%	5%	5%	6%

Highest, 1906, $6\frac{3}{8}$; lowest, 1909, $1\frac{3}{4}$. Present price, $2\frac{13}{16}$.

Khedivial Mail Co. (1897). Capital, 118,000 $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. debentures of £100 each; 200,000 $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. preference of £5 each; 100,000 ordinary of £1 each.

	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends . . .	10%	10%	10%	nil.	nil.

Highest, 1906, 47*s.*; lowest, 1910, 7*s.* Present price, 8*s.* 6*d.*

Upper Egypt Hotels Co. (1905). Capital authorised, £320,000; issued, £308,000, in ordinary shares of the nominal value of £E.5 (warrants to bearer); £100,000 in 5 per cent. debentures.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.
Dividends . . .	5%	5%	6%	6%	7%

Highest, 1906, $5\frac{7}{8}$; lowest, 1908, 2. Present price, $3\frac{3}{8}$.

The Aboukir Co., Ltd. Capital, £300,000, in ordinary shares (warrants to bearer) of the nominal value of £1. £100,000 in 5 per cent. debentures.

	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	8%	8%	8%

Highest, 1906, 48*s.*; lowest, 1907, 24*s.* 6*d.* Present price, 33*s.*

Anglo-Egyptian Land Allotment Co. (1905). Capital, £E.500,000, in shares of £E.4 each, of which 46,625 shares, or £E.186,500, have been repurchased by the company, thus reducing the capital to £E.313,500 by December 31, 1909.

	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	2%	nil.	nil.

Highest, 1907, $4\frac{7}{16}$; lowest, 1908, $1\frac{1}{2}$. Present price, $2\frac{5}{8}$.

Behera Co. Capital, £197,125, in 4 per cent. debentures. £E.487,500 cumulative 5 per cent. preference shares of £5 each. £E.250,000=50,000 ordinary shares of £E.5 each.

	1908.	1909.
Dividends	5%	6¼%

Highest, 1907, 45½; lowest, 1909, 17⅝. Present price, 21.

Building Lands of Egypt. Capital, £400,000, in ordinary shares (warrants to bearer) of the nominal value of £4, of which 6,156 shares, or £24,624, have been repurchased by the company, thus reducing the capital to £375,376, with 2,000 founders' shares of nominal value.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	5%	4½%	nil.	nil.

The Egyptian Delta Land and Investment Co., Ltd. Capital authorised, £500,000; issued, £324,000. All shares are of the nominal value of £1 and are warrants to bearer.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	3*s.*	5*d.*	nil.	nil.

Highest, 1906, 5⅛; lowest, 1909, ⅝. Present price, 1¼.

The Gharbieh Land Co. (1905). Capital, £E.400,000, in ordinary shares (warrants to bearer) of the nominal value of £E.4, of which £E.21,404 represented unpaid calls. £E.21,464=£E.278,536.

Dividends—nil.

Highest, 1909, 3¾; lowest, 2. Present price, 2⅝.

The New Egyptian Co. Capital authorised, £500,000; issued, £440,819; debentures, 5 per cent., £125,000.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	12½%	10%	nil.	nil.

Highest, 1906, 37*s.* 6*d.*; lowest, 1908, 5*s.* 3*d.* Present price, 11*s.* 3*d.*

Union Foncière d'Egypte (1905). Capital, £500,000, in shares of £5 each (warrants to bearer). £5,000 deferred nominal.

	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
Dividends	4½%	5½%	3%	3%

Highest, 1906, $6\frac{13}{16}$; lowest, 1908, $3\frac{1}{4}$. Present price, $3\frac{13}{16}$.

United Egyptian Lands, Ltd. Capital authorised, £856,450; issued, £737,900, in ordinary shares of the nominal value of £1 (registered and warrants to bearer); 1,248 in deferred shares of the nominal value of 1*s.*

Dividends. None has yet been paid.

Highest, 1907, 26*s.* 3*d.*; lowest, 1909, 2*s.* 6*d.* Present price, 5*s.* 9*d.*

The National Bank of Egypt, which was created by Khedivial decree in 1898, is the state bank of the country. It has a present capital of £3,000,000, which can be increased when desirable. It issues notes payable on demand, which, although not legal tender, are received in payment of Government dues. In 1902 the Agricultural Bank of Egypt was founded by the National Bank in agreement with the Government, with an authorised capital of £2,500,000, the National Bank handing over to the Agricultural Bank all its loans to landowners. The Government guarantees the capital issued in loans to the extent of 3 per cent., and recovers interest and sinking fund by official revenue collectors. The rate of interest is fixed at 9 per cent, to be reduced to 8 per cent. when £7,000,000 is out on loan. The present capital of the bank is £10,310,000. Reference is made elsewhere to the work of the Agri-

cultural Bank. The Governor of the National Bank of Egypt is Mr. Rowlatt, and it is in every respect a most excellent and useful institution, possessing a very handsome block of buildings as its headquarters in Sharia Ksar-el-Nile.

The other European banks with offices in Cairo, Alexandria, and in some cases Port Said, are the Imperial Ottoman Bank, Anglo-Egyptian Bank, Bank of Abyssinia, which are British; the Crédit Lyonnais, Deutsche Orient Bank, Bank of Rome, Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris, Ionian Bank, Bank of Athens, Credit Franco-Egyptian, etc.

There are numerous private banks, some of which are conducted on recognised banking methods, others under the category of usurers, lending money at extortionate interest to borrowers, and although the maximum legal interest in Egypt is 9 per cent., this is easily evaded by the manipulation of bills, which are purchased by the money-lender generally at his own outrageous figure. The demands of the money-lenders, who thrive on the extravagance of the fellaheen and the misfortunes of others who are forced to borrow from them, at present average 100 per cent. for short loans of from one to three months. Although the fellah is less in the clutches of the usurer than formerly, the latter has been in much request since the crisis. He is generally Jewish, Greek, or Levantine.

The valuable discovery of petroleum oil at Jemsa, 150 miles south of Suez on the Egyptian shores of the Red Sea, is fraught with much importance to Egypt and its revenues. The existence of petroleum is no new discovery, as it was reported on by the Egyptian Survey Department some years previously, when it was suggested that the Government should

work the oilfields. For over twelve months a private company has been boring under a prospecting licence, and from the first borehole put down a flow of oil under high pressure was obtained at a depth of about 1,290 feet, and the well was successfully capped without accident. A second flow was encountered in September 1909 at a depth of 1,660 feet at a boring commenced six months previously, about 150 yards from the first, which was also capped. Analyses of the first oil are said to show it to be of exceptionally high quality and to yield about 20 per cent. of motor spirit; 35 to 40 per cent. of burning oil, and a residuum of lubricating oil. The crude petroleum contains 3¼ per cent. of paraffin wax, and it is suggested if it were treated as fuel oil some 50 per cent. could be utilised. A thorough geological and topographical survey has been made by the Government, and boring operations are under process in several other likely localities. The importance of this discovery to Egypt and to Great Britain is considerable, in view of the revenue to be derived by the Egyptian Government from the working of the concessions and from the fact that the British Admiralty intends to adopt to a considerable extent liquid fuel for its new cruisers. It would also be possible to use the oil for locomotives on the state railway, thus effecting a considerable saving in the cost of coal, which is all imported. The subsequent reports of the oil-boring operations are naturally being awaited with considerable interest.

Gold is also found in Egypt, the Soudan Goldfield Co., Ltd., a British syndicate, having acquired certain mining rights there. It is believed that the results promise to be ultimately successful if sufficient pertinacity and care are displayed in the management of the operations. The company's total revenue

from the sales of gold amounted during 1909—its first year—to £20,487, against an expenditure of £30,000, of which sum there were expended on buildings, machinery and plant £19,139, and on railway plant, £5,589. This company has an authorised capital of £150,000. The results are considered by the syndicate to be encouraging and entitle them to look forward to the future with a fair amount of confidence.

The commercial capital of Egypt is Alexandria, and there all the leading shipping and merchant firms, including the banks, have their principal offices, with the exception of the National Bank of Egypt. Of recent years, however, Cairo has begun to play a more important part in business than it hitherto has done, and the rapid increase in new modern buildings has given an atmosphere of more importance to the operations of commercial houses, banks and companies. Port Said is also developing, but its work is mostly centred in the shipping passing through the canal. The Bourse at Alexandria is the centre of commercial life and activity in Egypt, and although the stockbrokers of Cairo, who are now regulated by the Government, have just built new headquarters for themselves in Cairo, there has unfortunately been little for them to transact in the way of business since they were occupied, and at present they apparently serve the purpose of an assembly room in which to talk over past transactions during Egypt's rise to affluence and the possibilities of a revival in the future.

A description of the commerce of Egypt would be incomplete without reference to a question of considerable importance to British shareholders which has been much discussed, has given rise to considerable apprehension, and is as yet unsettled. The posi-

tion of British public companies in Egypt is a most unsatisfactory one. It may be remembered, for the matter has been debated frequently in the Press, that the Mixed Tribunals of Egypt in April 1908, and again in the Court of First Instance at Cairo in June 1908 (De Vries & Boutigny, Ltd.), declared the City and Agricultural Land of Egypt, Ltd., which was formed as an English limited liability company, under English law, to be null and non-existent, and ordered it to be liquidated by the Egyptian court. Further, the same court declared that all companies similarly constituted, whose business was in Egypt and whose board meetings were held in Egypt, were also null and non-existent.

The Mixed Tribunals maintained that these companies had been formed under English law in order to evade the regulations of the Egyptian company law, which requires a deposit of a quarter of the proposed capital before the Khedivial firman for the formation of the company (a somewhat expensive luxury) is granted; it fixes £E.4 as the minimum nominal value of the shares of such proposed company and prohibits the issue of founders' or deferred shares.

Shareholders who wished to evade further calls in existing English companies have not hesitated to question the legal status of the said companies, and by bringing an action in the Mixed Tribunals have had the satisfaction of seeing such companies declared null and non-existent. As the British authorities remained apathetic, about fifty English companies transformed themselves into Egyptian concerns or went into voluntary liquidation.

The question is, is a company with a registered office in England, which has duly complied with all

the requirements of English law, to be recognised in Egypt as of English nationality? And if not, what are the consequences which might ensue, the position of the directors and the responsibilities of the promoters? Who is liable before the law?

The main cause of the situation which has arisen is the regulation dealing with the issuing of founders' or deferred shares, such a clause undoubtedly being aimed at the fraudulent promoter and speculator. The decision of the Mixed Courts is said to be due to its recognition of the French Courts, which in 1877 decided thus in the case of the Chemin de fer du Nord et de Catalogne. It is, however, believed that the Mixed Courts in Egypt will recognise a company as English when it possesses an English certificate of incorporation and holds its general and board meetings in England, no matter where the capital may be found, or what may be the nationality of its shareholders and its sphere of trade.

But the existing position is undoubtedly unsatisfactory. To quote a recent instance which was recorded in the *Pall Mall Gazette* by its Cairo correspondent:—

"The Helouan Development Co., Ltd., resolved to go into voluntary liquidation. A shareholder applied to the Mixed Tribunals for a declaration of its nullity and non-existence. This the Mixed Courts gave, appointing at the same time three liquidators. The voluntary liquidators, one of whom is a British subject, was then called upon by the mixed liquidators to hand over the books and assets.

"Certain British shareholders, however, objected to this, and applied for a restraint to the British Consular Court. The Supreme Court judge granted the

application, and declared that the Mixed Court had no right to declare a British company null and non-existent. There the matter rests for the time being. The point at issue is that of *statut personnel*. According to the Mixed Civil Code, the Mixed Courts can decide all cases between foreigners of different nationality and between natives and foreigners, except where questions of *statut personnel* are involved. The Mixed Courts declare that there is a difference between the *statut personnel* of an individual and that of a company, and hold that they have the right to deal with the latter.

"The consular judge, on the other hand, contends that once the nationality of a company has been established, its *statut personnel* is identical with that of an individual.

"But a graver and more serious question is involved by the Mixed Courts' decision. Whatever British companies have been formed have had to conform to the English law, and have received in due course their certificates of incorporation. That certificate, therefore, decides the nationality of the company. The Mixed Courts have, therefore, by their decision actually had the audacity to nullify an act of sovereignty—for the certificate of incorporation is an act of sovereignty—of a Power which was one of the signatories to the international treaty instituting those tribunals.

"Such a decision is a most serious precedent, and should not be allowed to pass unchallenged. Pressure is to be brought on the British agency by the British Chamber of Commerce in Alexandria, and there is every hope that a settlement satisfactory to British prestige and interests will be arrived at."

It is to be trusted that the hope of the corre-

spondent will be realised, so that an end may be put to such an intolerable state of affairs.

The interests of British traders in Egypt are advanced and protected by the British Chamber of Commerce, a representative and flourishing organisation, having its headquarters in Alexandria with a branch in Cairo. It publishes monthly an excellent magazine, which is well compiled and contains important articles and statistics of value to the British trader in Egypt and at home. The magazine is largely circulated both in Egypt and Great Britain, and those who think of opening up business relations with Egypt would do well to put themselves in communication with the secretary of the association, whose advice would be of much value, whilst a perusal of the magazine will yield much useful and interesting information to British traders who may have the Egyptian market in view.

There are also other European chambers of commerce and societies for the protection and promotion of commerce and agriculture which perform useful functions.

CHAPTER IX

AGRICULTURE AND COTTON

In Egypt agricultural interests preponderate overwhelmingly. It is essentially an agricultural country and its chief staple product is cotton. It produces the finest cotton in the world, and every effort of the Government and the merchants is concentrated on the maintenance of the high standard for which the product is deservedly famous. The rise of the country from bankruptcy to prosperity may be fairly attributed to two causes: Cromer and cotton! The enormous development of the land was only rendered possible by the administrative reformation brought about solely by the British occupation, and the great irrigation works which went with it. The occupation gave freedom to native labour; it transformed the poverty-stricken serfs under the Turkish pashas into peasant proprietors; it established the right to possession by the people, and invited the investments of European financiers, whose wealth was forthcoming to play its allotted part in the redemption of a land rich in undeveloped resources. The occupation, with the wealth, majesty and influence of the greatest colonising Power in the world behind it, guaranteed stability, security and ultimate success. The regeneration of the people carried with it of necessity the regeneration of the land. Great Britain gave ungrudgingly of her best in unravelling the

task thrust upon her in Egypt. From India came many of her ablest officials, whose unique experience and ability were placed at the disposal of Egypt. To India and her civil service the land of the Pharaohs owes its biggest debt for its regeneration and present prosperity. One has but to glance at the list of names of prominent British officials, drawn from the most brilliant civil service in existence, whose labours have contributed so materially to the making of Modern Egypt, to realise this. Lest the natives of Egypt forget the part played by Great Britain in the redemption of the land it may be well to remind them that the year 1915 will see the final payment in the extinction of the Domains debt, and these wealthy lands pledged to foreign creditors by the extravagance of a past native ruler will revert again to the people, the indebtedness having been wiped out. Although it is fashionable for Egyptian nationalism to indulge in periodical neurotic outbursts, it is to be hoped the native loyal to the best interests of his country will not be unmindful of his obligations to others.

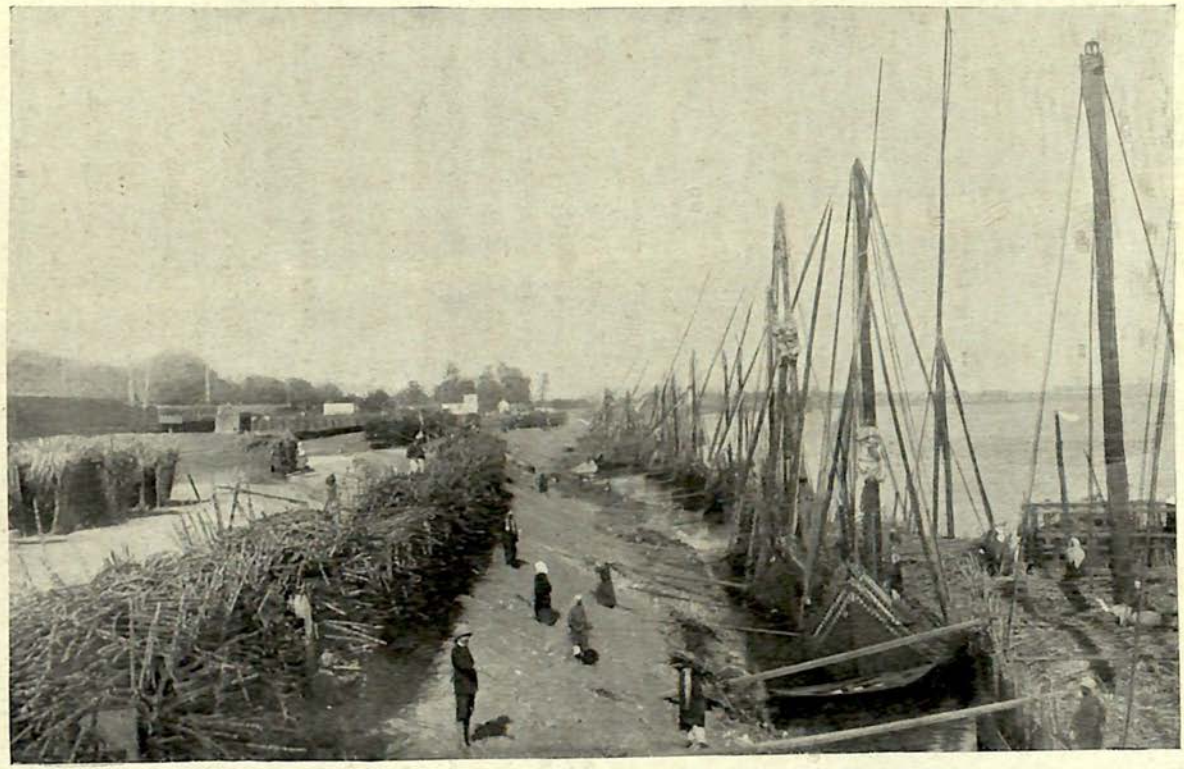
In 1900, according to the report of the Land Revenue Commission, the division of landed property among the various classes was as follows :—

	Number of Owners.	Acres.
5 acres and less than 5 acres . .	761,337	1,113,411
5 „ to 10 acres . . .	80,171	560,195
10 „ „ 20 „ . . .	39,710	550,774
20 „ „ 30 „ . . .	12,267	301,334
30 „ „ 50 „ . . .	8,990	344,765
over 50 „ . . .	11,939	2,243,573
giving a total of . .	914,414	5,114,052

The census of 1907 gave the total population of Egypt as 11,287,359, of whom 97,381 were nomad Arabs. The latest surveys of the country (excluding

desert areas and certain others) show the area of Egypt to be 12,026 square miles, and the density of population, omitting the populations of the districts where the area is not given, is 939 persons per square mile. This exceeds the density of population of Belgium—the most densely populated country of Europe—which has a population of 588·7 per square mile. Probably nowhere outside of Bengal will an area of like size be found carrying a population of a similar non-industrial character.

Between 1897 and 1907 Cairo increased in population by 84,414 persons and Alexandria by 50,243, Cairo having added to its inhabitants at the rate of 14·8 per cent. and Alexandria 15·7 per cent. The two cities of Egypt have increased at a rate higher than that of any other city, excepting Calcutta and Berlin, which is surprising considering the comparatively non-industrial character of the two Egyptian cities. No European country of any importance can at present show a higher rate of increase in population than Egypt since 1897, in most cases the European rate being far below that of Egypt. In Germany alone is the Egyptian rate equalled. In no part of the country is the increase since 1897 more conspicuous than in the north-west, immediately round Alexandria. In no area of a like size has development been so rapid during the last ten years as in Mariut, Kafr-el-Dawar, and in the direction of Daba and Muras Matruh. Villages have sprung up where none were before; railways have been built and canals dug through regions that were formerly waste, and cultivation has been extended enormously. To the south-west of Alexandria, in a stretch of country that, according to the 1897 returns, contained only a few hundred inhabitants, there is now a population



SUGAR INDUSTRY OF NAG-HAMADI: THE DISCHARGE OF CANE ON THE NILE.

of nearly 8,000, and what has been the case in the south-west has also been the case to the east of Alexandria. In the words of the managing director of the Aboukir Company, land where, when the Aboukir concession was taken up, "there was not a single inhabitant nor a single feddan of any sort under cultivation . . . in a few years will certainly carry a soul to the feddan"; and instances like that of the Aboukir Company might be multiplied.

"From 1884 to 1904," says Sir Auckland Colvin, in his *Making of Modern Egypt*, "the cotton crop of Egypt had been increased in quantity from three million cwt. to six million, in round figures; in value from £7,500,000 to double that figure. Timely sowing of the maize crop had been assured; the cultivable area of Egypt had been increased from five to six million acres, and the value of land had been greatly augmented; while, in spite of all these betterments, the land revenue had been reduced from five to four and a half millions of Egyptian pounds. From 1884 to 1908 rather more than eleven million sterling will have been sunk in irrigation in Egypt, from loans or other extraordinary sources. To this may be added the many millions incurred by the abolition of the corvée, and an annual budgetary expenditure of about £620,000, which since 1884 has been devoted to maintenance."

With reference to the prospective irrigation and reclamation works in Lower Egypt, the Projects Circle of the Irrigation Department has submitted various schemes to a committee. Estimates compute that the entire scheme will reclaim at least 1,600,000 acres, of which 600,000 acres will be provided by the drainage of Lake Borollos, which it is intended shall be undertaken first. The complete

work will cost about twenty millions sterling, but this enormous outlay, which will have to be spread over a number of years, will eventually it is hoped be recouped by the Egyptian Government by means of the sale of the land, which will have cost roughly £12 per acre—the expense of reclamation, etc.—and it is expected it will sell for at least half as much again, if not more.

In his report for 1909 Sir Eldon Gorst pointed out that the chief feature of the economic situation, in spite of a good Nile and favourable climatic conditions, was that the cotton crop had been very considerably below the average of recent years. That was evidence that the effects of the disastrous financial crisis of 1907 had not yet passed away and proved that patience was necessary before the country could be said to have regained its former prosperity. "At the same time," he wrote, "I do not consider that so long as agriculture prospers, there is cause for serious anxiety. All agricultural countries are liable to violent fluctuations of crops."

The commission appointed by the Government to investigate questions connected with the growth of cotton in Egypt recommended a complete reorganisation of the system of agricultural schools on the basis of primary, secondary and superior schools; the creation of agricultural stations throughout the country in connection with a central institution in Cairo with a large staff of scientific experts; the creation of a department of agriculture; and finally, the appointment of a permanent committee of agriculture to supervise agricultural interests in general. The committee also urged the necessity of teaching the natives how and when to water their crops.

Farm schools are now being instituted, and the

next step contemplated by the Government to give effect to the views of the committee is the creation of practical schools of agriculture intermediate between the former, and the Ghizeh School of Agriculture, which will be gradually transformed into a higher college.

The value of the cotton exported in 1909 was £21,478,000, being 6,952,000 kantars, and in 1910, £24,242,000, being 6,009,400 kantars. The value of cotton exported to Great Britain in 1909 was £10,524,015. Cotton seed was exported in 1909 to the value of £2,433,100, against £2,471,000 in 1908, of which £1,868,550 went to Great Britain.

The export of eggs grew in value from £86,000 in 1908 to £153,000 in 1909 (of which £126,572 went to Great Britain), but dropped to £125,000 in 1910. Onions decreased 7·3 per cent. compared with 1908 in quantity but increased in 1909 in value by 30·6, the figures being £260,000 in 1909 against £199,000 in 1908. Great Britain's share was £115,855. In 1910 the figures increased to 90,800 tons, valued at £E.264,000.

During 1909 the imports of wheat fell by £104,000, maize by £21,000, sesame by £34,000, and live stock by £32,000, due to better local crops and the disappearance of cattle plague. The export of native-grown rice was increased by £26,700, or 18·9 per cent., in 1909, and further increased to £228,300 in 1910.

In 1909 the total area planted with cotton was approximately 1,530,000 acres. The cotton worm and boll worm inflicted considerable damage, in spite of the fact that the Government enforced certain legal measures for their destruction, 77 special inspectors and 167 assistants being appointed, at a cost of £5,500, to supervise operations, and 110,000 children

being requisitioned to pick the contaminated leaves. There were 13,570 prosecutions for not destroying the worms; and 900 omdehs and sheiks were punished for neglect of duty and 659 workers for evasion in 1910.

From statistics published by the Survey Department the superfices of land under cotton cultivation has risen in Lower Egypt from 36 per cent. of the total cultivated area in 1909 to 42 per cent. in 1911, the area in 1910 having been 38 per cent. In Upper Egypt the proportion was 30 per cent. in 1909, 36 per cent. in 1910, and 39 per cent. in 1911; thus the area under cotton cultivation in 1911 increased about 10 per cent. The crop for 1911 was estimated at six and a half million kantars.

The total area under sugar-cane cultivation was 50,000 acres, a considerable advance on recent years; 359,000 tons of cane were produced in 1909, the supply for 1909–10 yielding 515,000 tons, almost double that of 1907-8. Experiments are now being made with an improved cane from Mauritius.

The yearly census of farm animals in 1909 gave 725,116 cattle and 728,284 buffaloes, but again in 1910 showed a decrease compared with previous years. Soudan sheep and cattle now find a market in Cairo, 36,000 being imported during 1909, and 5,318 cattle and 63,000 sheep in 1910. Great importance is being attached to the fostering of the cattle trade between the Soudan and Egypt, which is rapidly growing.

Oil cake exported from Egypt to Great Britain amounted in value in 1909 to £240,044.

With reference to the sugar industry of Egypt, which has revived considerably of recent years, a good example of the revival is afforded by the Mattai

factory, which was closed in the season 1907–8 for want of supplies of cane. It re-opened the year following with a consumption of 24,000 tons, but during the season 1909–10 worked no less than 110,000 tons of native cane. The total capacity of the Hawamdieh refinery is 50,000 tons of raw sugar. The sugar industry, it is satisfactory to note, continues to progress, and an important factor is the Sugar Refining Co. of Egypt, which is a French concern with its factory at Al Derb. The factory stands on an area of about sixty-two acres, and is distant two kilometres from the Nile at Nag Hamadi, being reached by a light railway constructed by the company. The factory cost about £1,000,000 to erect and finds employment for 40,000 labourers, each man receiving 6 piastres (1*s.* 3*d.*) for six working hours.

The cultivated area of sugar-cane in Upper Egypt is estimated at 25,000 acres, each acre producing 500 kantars at a kantar value of three and a half piastres (8¾*d.*).

The company has done much to encourage the cultivation of the sugar-cane. Only three years ago, in the face of the crisis, it distributed about £150,000, at the rate of 6 per cent., among farmers, and suspended the payment of monies due in 1909 for a further twelve months.

Of course, in the cultivation of the sugar-cane the ravages worked by the worm have to be contended with, and the suppression of this pest is a matter which should at all times be seriously considered by the Government. With this done, and in view of the many advantages of cultivation in Egypt, there is no reason why the cultivation of the sugar-cane should not further increase.

Among other voluntary agencies for the encouragement and improvement of agriculture by the natives is the Alexandria Horticultural Society, the object of the society being that the fellaheen should not be allowed to raise inferior crops simply for the purpose of selling, but that the best that the land can produce, with careful cultivation, should be raised for export. In a recent report the society pointed out "that there may be many to whom the necessity of some movement in the direction of better and increased vegetable culture has long been apparent, but there are few who realise fully the possibilities of Egypt as a vegetable and fruit-producing country. It is only by actual demonstration, however, that the notions of the cultivators are likely to undergo a change.

"Numerous sites for larger experimental grounds have been under consideration for some time past, and steps are now being taken to lease, if possible, a suitable tract of land for the furtherance of the society's work—vegetable culture and seed-growing. The land will be used as a demonstration area, and may possibly, if funds permit, be the precursor of the acquisition of a number of such areas by the society.

"With a view of demonstrating the feasibility of seed-growing in Egypt, several crops of this nature have been produced at Nouzha. There is an eager market for certain seeds, and those produced at Nouzha could easily have been disposed of many times over. It is thought desirable to sell such seeds to as many different cultivators as possible, with a view of making the merits of the seeds as widely known as possible.

"The society has always kept in view the neces-

sity of paying special attention to those crops which were likely to be profitable for exportation, and has been anxious to push the matter on as far as circumstances would permit.

"During 1908 several consignments of vegetables were forwarded to various parts of Europe, with the object of ascertaining particulars which would be likely to lead to an increase of such exports. Small as the consignments have hitherto been, they have nevertheless resulted in the acquiring of information as to the best methods to pursue.

"The cultivation of vegetables is exciting more and more interest, and it is a fact which should not be forgotten that the aggregate of the present crops of Egypt is but a fraction of what the country could easily and profitably produce.

"Fortunately the Egyptian climate favours growth at a time when the field and garden crops of many other countries are at a standstill or non-existent owing to the cold weather. The most favourable time for exporting is therefore during the winter and early spring months, when but scanty supplies of vegetables are in the northern market. During those seasons Europe offers an excellent market for Egyptian produce."

In regard to the encouragement of agriculture, Sir Eldon Gorst, in his report for 1909 dealing with the Domains administration, stated that, "The administration also helps the Government and the Khedivial Agricultural Society by carrying out agricultural experiments on a large scale. A farm of some 15,000 feddans has been devoted to this purpose, and in addition it assists the society to provide a large supply of selected cotton seed for distribution to cultivators throughout the country. Further, to

counteract the recent deterioration of Indian wheat, which had been imported into Egypt in 1897, arrangements are now being made for the purchase of a fresh supply of superior quality which will be available for distribution by the sowing season of 1911. Special attention will be given to investigating, on a more extended scale than is possible within the limited area administered by the Agricultural Society, new methods of combating the ravages of the cotton and boll worms, and any scheme which promises success will be given a practical trial. The question of the results obtained by employing chemical and other manures in the cultivation of cotton will also be the subject of special study. Experiments for the purpose of throwing light on the effect on the cotton plant of subsoil water at varying levels have already been undertaken, and, in connection with the enquiry now proceeding on the subject of cotton cultivation in Egypt, useful information with regard to atmospheric conditions, shedding of bolls, etc., is being obtained."

"The basis of Egypt's wealth remains in its cotton crop," said H.E. Hussein Pasha Wassif to a newspaper interviewer in London recently. The pasha, who for nine years was Governor-General of Port Said and the Suez Canal, can speak with authority, for like many Egyptian notables, on relinquishing office he devoted himself to agriculture, taking an active part in the direction of various agricultural societies. He attributed the failure of the 1908–9 crop to the neglect —amounting to criminal neglect—of the authorities, who abstained from taking measures to cope with the devastations of the boll worms: "But the Government had profited by the lesson of 1908."

In this the pasha was but re-echoing public opinion in Egypt.

The Khedivial Agricultural Society has, during the last four years, been paying special attention to the cotton crop, and in particular to the possibility of raising new and superior varieties of cotton. Several papers have been published by the botanist of the society, Mr. W. Lawrence Balls, M.A., and by the etymologist, Mr. F. C. Willcocks, and from their practical conclusions the following has been summarised.

Egyptian cotton is especially remarkable for its fine lint, which gains for it a special market. If specimens of Egyptian cotton and of American upland cotton be handled, the softer touch of the product of this country is immediately contrasted with the rather rough, stiff quality of the other. Besides being more silky, the line is also rather longer. It is, moreover, possible to mercerise Egyptian cotton and so use it to manufacture the many semi-silk and pseudo-silk fabrics that are now so much in vogue. Among these may be mentioned the lining of hats, cheap silk neckties, and other forms of mercerised cotton that have been so popular of late. Mercerising is done by dipping the yarn in a solution of caustic soda. Egyptian is the only cotton which yields satisfactory results with this treatment.

There is a variety of American cotton known as Sea Island cotton which is closely related to the Egyptian. The output of this is limited. It is chiefly used for very strong fabrics, such as sailcloth or the fabric of bicycle tyres. A small quantity of this variety is grown in Egypt. The length of the thread in Egyptian cotton, though inferior to that of Sea Island, renders it more suitable than uplands

for light diaphanous fabrics. Each lint hair in a cotton boll has a spiral twist, which helps the spinning. In Egyptian and Sea Island cotton the twist is very marked, whereas in American upland cotton it is neither so marked nor so regular. When the cotton is pulled away from the seed in the Egyptian cotton boll, the seed is left quite bare, with only a tiny tuft at each end. In the American boll, on the other hand, the seed is coated with a short fluff. On this account the Egyptian seed cotton is more easily ginned, the roller easily removing the cotton from the seed, whereas the American cotton has to be treated in a "saw-gin," whereby more damage is done to the lint.

The Egyptian product is nearly all brownish in colour, whereas the American is white. The brownish and cream tinges are preferred by manufacturers, especially in certain years. The present year is a case in point, and large quantities of "abassi," the white Egyptian cotton, are a drug in the market. Egyptian and American represent the two main types of cotton in the world. In consequence of the advantages already named, Egyptian cotton sells at a higher price than American.

The stock variety of Egyptian cotton is the kind known as "afifi." It is a full brown in tint. "Jannovitch" comes next, finer, more silky and creamy in hue. The third main kind, known as "abassi," is pure white, brilliant and lustrous.

We have seen that the product of the Egyptian crops is superior to that of the American. Amongst its disadvantages, however, must be reckoned the fact that it yields a smaller crop. When upland American cotton is brought down here a larger crop is grown. The average smaller yield obtained in the

States is the result merely of the inferior cultivation. Egyptian cotton grown side by side with American does not give so heavy a yield as the American, partly on account of the fact that the boll of an American plant is much larger than that of the Egyptian.

Another point in favour of the American cotton is that it flowers sooner. This early flowering and consequently early fruition take much anxiety from the cultivator, as there is less time for the boll-worm, that foe to the crop, to do its work.

This destruction is begun when the moth lays its eggs on the terminal shoots of the young plant in spring. When the eggs hatch out the worms burrow in the interior of the plant, and feed on it. The worm comes outside and forms a chrysalis from which it emerges later as the boll-worm moth. The gradual increase of temperature as spring passes and summer comes on shortens the time required for the development of this pest. It is during and after September that the boll-worm does his worst damage, the number of worms being by this time enormous. His numbers later are reduced by the winter cold and by parasitic enemies. Some of the boll-worms, however, manage to live through the winter and are ready to start multiplying again in the spring. At the same time there are not sufficient quantities of boll-worm to spoil the crop at that season. It is, as we have seen, in September that it increases with sufficient rapidity to do this. The first picking taken begins early in September and is almost free from boll-worm. The second is likely to be slightly affected, and the third is very bad in a boll-worm year. There is no ready means of attacking the boll-worm in the early days of the

cotton crop or of destroying him when once he has a footing. It will easily be seen that the early maturing of the crop is thus very desirable, as it would enable most of the cotton to ripen before the boll-worm had multiplied. The question naturally arises, would it be advisable to import American seed in large quantities? The answer is an emphatic negative on account of the very special market of which Egyptian cotton holds the monopoly. On the other hand it seems very advisable that something should be done to make the Egyptian cotton mature sooner. The kind known as "afifi" was introduced in 1884. One of its chief characteristics at that time was that it matured very early. Cotton experts at Alexandria, who remember its first appearance, report that "afifi" got later and later in maturity. The picking of twenty years ago was three weeks earlier, on the average, than it is at present. The "afifi" was Egyptian in origin, but natural selection operating amongst the various types which compose it has produced this change of character. Many experts are of opinion that cotton which has matured early is better than that which matures late.

It would certainly be worth while to try to introduce early maturity into the Egyptian cotton crop, but the subject presents grave difficulties. There appear to be two ways of effecting this introduction of early maturity, viz., by cross-breeding with upland stocks, or by selection from the existing varieties which consist of a very varied mixture of forms.

The reasons for the mixture are two-fold. Firstly, the Egyptian crop is derived from various types of cotton, and secondly, a certain amount of crossing takes place between plants growing side by side, bees carrying pollen from one to the other and so pro-

ducing natural hybrids, which show fresh re-combination of the parental characteristics. By the application of one or both of these methods we may hope to produce new varieties of cotton which, while retaining the distinctive and valuable lint peculiarities of the present Egyptian crop, will also mature sooner and yield more heavily. Such cottons, having been produced, would require a system of seed stations for their dissemination to the fellaheen, which stations would be so managed as to prevent mixture or contamination of the new strains until they were actually under cultivation. And when the cultivated crop showed signs of such deterioration of seed, the stock could be renewed from these stations. The Agricultural Society is taking steps towards starting an experiment station for plant-breeding, which will form the centre of such a series of seed stations.

The importance of Egyptian cotton to British industries was emphasised at a Council of the British Cotton-growing Association held in Manchester in May 1910, when the chairman said the present state of matters in connection with the Egyptian cotton crop was causing considerable concern in Manchester, owing to the fact that the larger proportion of the crop was used in England, and it was therefore as serious for Lancashire as it was for Egypt.

Captain Lyons, F.R.S., formerly Director-General of the Survey Department of Egypt, and now lecturer in Geography at Glasgow University, delivered an address to the council with special reference to the diminution in the quality and the deterioration of the crop in recent years. He was certain the remedy lay in the collection of accurate information for localised areas of moderate size throughout the

country. The minimum quantity of water necessary for raising the summer crop was now assured. The important question at the present time was the distribution of the water to the different parts in exactly the quantity required. In considering the factors that were supposed to operate prejudicially against the cultivation of cotton in Egypt the greatest stress was laid on the biennial planting and the difficult question of the subsoil water.

Public attention has been drawn of late to the operations of the Agricultural Bank of Egypt, owing to the action the bank took recently in proceeding legally against a number of fellaheen for the recovery of arrears. The question was immediately taken up by the Nationalist Press and others who took exception to the methods of the bank, and a good deal of wrong information and unfair criticism appeared in print. During the eight years the bank has been in existence, 20,000 borrowers appear to have repaid their loans, although such loans were for periods of twenty years; the published statements concerning the bank's law suits—which did not exceed 6,000 out 350,000 accounts—were quite erroneous and mischievous. The trouble, on investigation, appeared to have been due to the fact that through extravagance certain borrowers got entangled with money-lenders, and in the majority of cases the fellaheen bought in his land when it was put up for sale.

The objects of the bank and its conditions were briefly explained in his 1908 report by Sir Eldon Gorst, and, considering the wrong ideas which prevail through the recent agitation, and how closely the bank is identified with agricultural progress in Egypt, they may here bear reproduction.

"The Agricultural Bank of Egypt was founded in

1902, with the object of advancing money on easy terms to small cultivators. The advances are of two kinds, namely, small loans (known as 'A' loans, not exceeding £E.20, secured by the borrower's note of hand only, and repayable in one sum within fifteen months; and larger loans (known as 'B' loans) not exceeding £E.500, secured by first mortgage on land worth at least twice the sum advanced, and repayable by annual instalments over twenty and a half years at most. The maximum rate of interest is now fixed at 8 per cent. The recovery of the sums is effected by the ordinary tax-collectors, who are paid for this work by commission, and the Government guarantees the total capital of the bank lent out, with 3 per cent. interest thereon. The capital, originally fixed at £2,500,000, has now been raised gradually to £10,310,000, and the total amount of the loans put out since the foundation of the institution is £E.15,140,000, divided in £E.2,110,000 for 'A' loans and £E.13,030,000 for 'B' loans. The amounts repaid to the bank have been £E.2,018,000 on account of the former, and £E.4,622,000 on account of the latter, making a total of £E.6,640,000, so that the amount outstanding at the end of 1908 was £E.8,500,000, divided into £92,000 on 'A' and £E.8,408,000 on 'B' loans. At the end of 1907 the total of the instalments in arrear, capital and interest combined, amounted to £E.126,000, of which £E.70,000 was collected during the first two months of the ensuing year. The corresponding figure at the end of 1908 was £E.206,000, of which upwards of £E.100,000 has already been recovered."

In his later report Sir Eldon Gorst wrote at some length on the bank and its operations, and made some important and interesting observations. He pointed

out the bank's operations were never put to a severe test until the end of 1907, "when the great prosperity which the Egyptian peasantry had begun to look upon as permanent received a temporary set-back. Accurate information as to the purposes for which the loans are used has never been forthcoming, but there is little doubt that a large proportion of the money borrowed was devoted to the purchase of land. The impression that the loans have contributed to augment the number of small owners is erroneous." The financial crisis, low prices, and bad crops led to difficulties for borrowers meeting their instalments. The loans outstanding amount to £8,136,000, distributed over 238,000 debtors. At the end of January 1910 there were 40,000 defaulters. "The right policy for the Government and the bank is, therefore, not to abandon or restrict business, which has, I am convinced, done much to relieve the condition of the peasantry, but to set to work to remedy the defects which the experience of recent years has shown to exist in its practical working."

For many years past the crying need of an agricultural department as a Government unit has been active in the minds of all people in Egypt who have the welfare of the country at heart, whether engaged politically, officially, industrially, or commercially; the agricultural pursuits and results therefrom being of paramount importance, and far outweighing all other economical and constitutional considerations in the country. The reasons for this, even to the casual visitor, are not far to seek, for Egypt is nothing if not agricultural, industries and commerce being mere adjuncts, and few as they are, they would cease entirely to exist were it not for the latent fertility of Egypt's soil.

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY IN EGYPT: LOADING UP TRUCKS WITH CANE.

Some few years ago a clear-sighted group of men, composed of several nationalities, made an effort to establish an organisation which could deal with matters agricultural and fill a breach in the machinery of progress, since the Government themselves could not do so. Thus came into being the Khedivial Agricultural Society, which soon came to be recognised as a semi-official institution. It had the countenance of members of the Khedivial family, encouragement from heads of departments, and representatives of vested interests, and was managed by a board selected from their number. A secretary-general was appointed, possessing a technical training, who was permitted to enlist a small qualified staff, such as an entomologist, analytical chemist, veterinary surgeon, and assistants.

The uses for these officials were great, so great in fact that, instead of turning their attention to one thing at a time and specialising and perfecting a control and organisation which could have effectively raised the conditions in any particular branch of farming, they disappointingly developed into a profit-making concern, gradually drifting away from the enunciated scheme, until of recent times they devoted themselves to such matters as would swell their revenues. This obviously was not serving the purpose required, and gave rise to many disappointments, which resulted in some dissatisfaction amongst natives with the British Administration in general.

To point out the several factors which were neglected or overlooked by the society would take too long and be wearisome reading, but in passing it may be said that in 1904 and 1905 efforts were made by the Agricultural Bank to obtain specially selected cotton seed through the medium of this

body, of which they could guarantee the quality to the fellaheen, collecting the payment for same when the crop was gathered. The society provided, however, seed altogether inferior to sample, and far below that obtainable from private merchants, so much so that the fellaheen in certain districts refused *en masse* to accept delivery of it, with the result that the whole project of dealing out carefully selected seed ceased entirely.

The society stood to lose nothing in this venture; on the contrary, it stood to gain a substantial commission in its capacity as buying agent; all it was required to do was to select and purchase reliable seed, and have it delivered at certain recognised centres.

The above instance is merely one to show that the supervision of seed, which is a highly important essential, was not one of the society's strong points. It has, however, supplied commercial manures in steadily increasing quantities since its establishment, and although the fellaheen complain that the price is high (it works out at something like £1 15*s.* to £8 per acre for the cotton land), yet good results have ensued by its use, and to-day it brings in a very large income to the society's funds, possibly something over £20,000 a year with sundry smaller parings. But reviewing all such factors as the above *ex parte* it is of far higher importance to the country that instead of the more easily handled auxiliary manures the fellaheen should be guaranteed a properly controlled and protected supply of good seed.

Passing on from the Khedivial Agricultural Society to what everyone living in Egypt expected to supplant it, viz., the newly-constituted Agricultural Department, with its full official significance, we find

that instead of a stately and well-backed department, we have merely the skeleton of such with but little meat on its bones, and crippled from its inception not only by totally inadequate resources in its budget, but more particularly by the lack of support from the higher controlling power; so obvious are these missing essentials that one stops to wonder whether the British Agent-General can realise what a grave risk he is taking.

To start with, the policy of permitting the Khedivial Agricultural Society to continue its course, more or less in opposition to the new department, in itself has many drawbacks. It was fully anticipated that the new administration would take over from the society the capable *personnel* who had proved themselves efficient and qualified, and thus commence with an open field and untrammelled interests.

The chief of this new department was carefully chosen, an Englishman, in fact, of wide and varied experience, possessing qualifications of a high order, Mr. Gerald Dudgeon, formerly inspector of Agriculture for British West Africa. This appointment, however, while affording satisfaction to the British and foreign community, did not please all, and after a short time the high-placed president of the society, lending a kindly ear to certain Nationalist discontent, made such representations to the British agency, under the pretext that the society was his absorbing hobby, that the British Agent agreed to take no steps to check the society's career. Thereupon the native officer of the society was engaged on a three-year contract with the status of secretary-general to the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and terms were offered to certain of the more valuable employees

who had been offered posts in the new department that they settled to remain.

The result of this statesmanship is simply that the society are now free to carry on their work unchecked, with much solid working material, with accommodation, grounds for show purposes, offices, laboratories, and full equipment, and can so work their supplies of grain and fertilisers as to produce them a very handsome revenue.

On the other hand the new department, while having everything fresh to do, has neither grounds, offices, nor laboratories, but merely a grant to cover all heads of £E.20,000, and has so much work before it that it can scarcely be accepted as a serious movement.

The new department, moreover, will be closely watched, in fact, the cynosure of all eyes from within and without, and the Nationalists will not hesitate to criticise its doings, and any shortcomings, no matter how far removed from practical matters, will certainly be used again as a strong reason for denouncing the British Administration in Egypt. But with a budget of such futile proportions, how can a department having such a vast field of useful work before it show any practical developments that will lead to an intelligent improvement in the farming conditions in Egypt within any reasonable span of years? The pity of it! But this is the way of Egypt!

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH

CHAPTER X

THE PEOPLE OF EGYPT

THE most fascinating study in the world is the study of humanity, especially Eastern humanity; their racial characteristics and institutions; their ways, thoughts and daily life, influenced by religion, family laws and customs, which have developed from history and environment and grown up to meet peculiar needs. That study is made the more interesting if comparisons can be drawn by the student between one Eastern race and another, when such races are representative of an ancient civilisation, which, having served its day, has degenerated and decayed, unsuited to guide and control the new political and social aspirations and forces which have been thrust upon an ancient people by the intrusion of a more robust Western civilisation. It is not easy now as of yore, in the East, to put entirely new wine into old bottles with satisfactory results, the temperaments under an Asiatic sun are too prone to rapid fermentation. Many things which are possible in the West are impossible in the East—there are fundamental differences. The Oriental ways of thought and motives of action remain still inscrutable and immutable, and those who have lived and worked with and for them most are the first to acknowledge their own limitations in a thorough understanding of Eastern peoples.

What may be an apparently easy task to the travelling politician filling in a parliamentary recess, seeking, perhaps earnestly, to redress the political and social shortcomings of an Eastern race, and to the restless globe-trotter, viewing Oriental life for a few hours from his hotel window, or dazzled temporarily by a trip through the bazaar, carefully arranged by his native guide, still presents to the able and experienced official, who has administered a country or province during the best mental years of a vigorous life, a problem little nearer solution at his period of retirement than when he first entered office with all the enthusiasm and confidence of his early manhood. One may live and work for years in closest touch with the Oriental, from the simple and faithful labourer or artisan to the high official with his masterly intellectual powers, his ancient philosophy and superior learning, but there are moments when one feels convinced that the mainspring of the native mind remains as inscrutable and as far removed from understanding as ever. The fundamental basis of things is still unprobed and there appears to be no visible bond of sympathy to bridge the gulf. The Oriental mind and the influences which direct it appear to be of the remote past, whilst the Westerner is essentially of the present.

The situation is grotesque, and there is not wanting a suspicion that intellectually the Oriental is the superior—that his Western attributes are to him easily acquired for motives of expediency, are only superficial, and that the old civilisation is a force which might yet triumph over the new if those sluggish depths are stirred deep enough and the Asiatic forced to exert himself. This superiority is

evident in the following instances. In diplomacy the Asiatic is easily our master, as he is uncontrolled by those influences which affect Western minds and methods, and in which truth is the least obtrusive virtue. In commerce there are few races to equal, and none to excel, the Chinese and Parsees, and their business integrity is generally unimpeachable. In valour, self-sacrifice, and in their powers of self-destruction in the cause of patriotism the Japanese as soldiers and sailors have afforded remarkable examples, whilst the same race to-day, after a ridiculously short period of preparation and study, is in the front rank by its grasp of Western scientific attainments. In China an old man of seventy-two recently carried off his master of arts degree at the annual examinations—a not uncommon occurrence—and in the Straits Settlements the Chinese schoolboy, born and reared in a British colony, with all its advantages, regularly carries all before him, winning scholarships year after year which take him to Britain to complete his studies.

The one charge against the Oriental is that he cannot initiate—the Japanese, for instance—and there is some truth as yet in it. They have developed the useful faculty of accepting the best the West can offer, and of rejecting the unsuitable. It may be due chiefly to the fact that they have not acquired the habit of publishing their mistakes—and there are many—for even in the East the age of miracles is past. They have also had but little time in which to create from inspiration the result of their adoption of Western civilisation.

If certain reports are to be relied upon, it was Lord Cromer who was credited with having said on his retirement from Egypt that after all his years of

administration he still failed to understand, as he would have wished to understand, the Egyptian people. Not a few able administrators in our Indian service have remarked the same of the people among whom they laboured a lifetime.

The Continental critic is frequently ready to remark that whilst the English are undoubtedly successful colonisers, they are not so successful as they might be in winning the favour and regard of the people whom they colonise. They secure the respect and confidence of the natives by their energy, ability, honesty, and impartiality, but they never appear to get into close relations with the people and win their sympathy and regard. To this those with experience of Eastern races, governed by Europeans, might well answer that administratively no European race is so successful or so impartial as the British. Is there any European power administering a native colony that has won the sympathy and favour of those ruled? Individually, the Frenchman or the Latin, adapted by temperament, may get into closer touch with the native. The Spanish and Portuguese went further, but where are they to-day, and what institutions have they left behind them? "Equality, Liberty, and Fraternity," are high-sounding principles in France, and look well emblazoned on the scroll of the Governor-General of Tonkin, but they are principles entirely in the abstract when the control of the subject races is considered, and there is sound reason why they should remain so until the fitting time arrives for their successful application. Such is the experience also of the Dutch in Java, even of the Americans in the Philippines, and of the latest aspirants for colonising honours, the Japanese in Korea. The successful policy in many lands appears to be that of Lord

BISHOP GWYNNE OF KHARTOUM.

Photo by Elliott & Fry, Ltd.

Cromer: to "hasten slowly," and bring home repeatedly to those governed the conviction that the real and final interests to be considered are those of the people as a people.

To Egypt the comprehensive words of Kipling remain peculiarly applicable:

> Take up the white man's burden,
> And reap his old reward—
> The blame of those ye better,
> The hate of those ye guard.
> The cry of hosts unnumbered
> Ye slowly brought to light:
> "Why brought ye us from bondage,
> Our loved Egyptian night?"

Bishop Gywnne, of Khartoum, shares with the Sirdar, Sir Reginald Wingate, the reputation of being one of the few men who have gained the affection of the Egyptian and Soudanese peoples with whom they have come in contact. It is no exaggeration to say that there is not a man in Egypt or the Soudan to-day who stands higher in the respect of the Egyptian people than the Sirdar. It is characteristic of the Egyptian Nationalist Press, which usually has no regard for persons, their positions or their reputations, that it is rare that any attack is made upon the British officer who is administering the Soudan and who is the officer commanding the Egyptian Army. The Egyptian officers, especially those who have served under him and fought with him, are devoted to him, and it is a matter of infinite regret to them and many others that the Sirdar is likely to retire sooner or later and thus be unable to retain the position for which he is so eminently suited. A gallant and able soldier, a wise, energetic, painstaking, and successful administrator, with the rare gift of winning the respect,

confidence and loyalty of all who have the pleasure of meeting him, European or native; with great amiability of character and an intimate knowledge of the native mind, developed probably during his years of captivity, he charms all with whom he is brought into contact. No man was more fitted for the very responsible position of succeeding Lord Cromer as the British representative in Cairo and his appointment would have meant much to Egypt. The Nationalist movement would have early collapsed, for the Sirdar would have gathered round him at once all those influential Egyptians loyal to the best interests of the country, many of whom, since partly estranged, have held aloof, watching the development of events. The best of the native elements yet remains at the disposal of a wise, firm, and trusted administrator.

Bishop Gywnne has lived among the people and he is a sturdy and wise representative of the Church militant. He has many gifts, not the least, according to Kipling, being a knowledge of that useful instrument, the banjo, which has cheered the Tommies immensely during a desert bivouac on a Soudan night. A short time ago, during what was regarded as a critical period, following the murder of the Egyptian premier, one result of the Nationalist agitation, the bishop solemnly addressed the British residents in Egypt on what he regarded as their special duty towards the people of Egypt. He pointed out that most British residents held aloof from the people, and he personally knew, as one in close touch with the people, that the great stumbling block between them "was a great prejudice the natives had for the Christian religion, and those who follow it." To break down the strong, almost insuperable, barrier

he considered to be the duty of all. "It could never be done by pandering to the Egyptians; they take that for cowardice and despise us; and when anything of our religion is flung at them as a sop to their fanaticism, we bring upon us their contempt. The only way is to make friends with those closely connected with us in our everyday work."

"We should give no heed," said the bishop, "to the loud, blatant ravings by irresponsible natives, either here or in the Soudan. One thing is evident, and to me it is very depressing: there is, without doubt, great and bitter hatred of us. We ask ourselves: 'Is there any reason for this?' I had a long talk just the last week before I came down with a senior Egyptian officer, one of the old sort who fought side by side with our British troops all the way from Halfa to Khartoum. He and his family have been great friends of mine for many years, and he spoke, as he always does, very bluntly and simply to me. He said: 'The British are so proud; they treat all natives as if they were not human beings. That is the reason why my fellow countrymen dislike you.' I told him about our British reserve; how sometimes in trains at home we do not speak to each other, although we may be travelling hundreds of miles in the same compartment; that the Continental nations notice it. I said we could not help it; but he shook his head and said: 'They don't even try to help it or to understand us.' But if this is true—and I am sure there was no doubt of it in the mind of this officer—then we ought to try to help it, otherwise we are building up a great wall of prejudice as a hindrance to administration and to any possibility of improvement in the natives."

How far the bishop's advice is likely to be acted

upon is doubtful. There are many English residents in Egypt, especially the older officials and commercial men, who possess the fullest confidence and even the affection of the Egyptians, having many native friends. The integrity of the Englishman still stands high in Egypt, although it may not always be appreciated by those natives who have axes to grind and purposes to serve. But, on the whole, there is a big gulf between the two races, a want of mutual understanding and sympathy, which considering the issues at stake is to be greatly deplored. One reason of this is that the young English official or commercial assistant is exclusive, being reserved by nature and educational training, and possesses his own ideals. His spare time is devoted to sport and recreation, for he is a healthy animal, and has no toleration or patience for the obvious shortcomings and defects of the native with whom he is brought into contact. Consequently, they never get close enough to understand or to appreciate one another. They are products of essentially different environments.

The young Egyptian to-day is a type which has been evolved since the Occupation, and varies considerably from the young man of his father's period. The parent is mindful of the past—the oppression and extortion of the old days. He has gone through the mill, and having once tasted the rule of the pasha and enjoying now the security and freedom which have come upon him he is not likely to be tempted into any action or speech which would bring back the native ruler with his native methods of ruling. He is content with the existing Government, and quite happy as long as his pockets are untouched by new taxation; he enjoys the sunshine and prosperity of the new régime, with its ever-

increasing facilities for the development of the land. The presence of the European merchant or tradesman means to him an honest price for his produce and the advent of foreign luxuries to be purchased when he possesses the means. His recreation is the periodical *moulid*, or fair, or a quiet lazy evening outside the restaurant, sipping coffee and smoking the inevitable cigarette, enjoying a gossip with his neighbour. The warmth of the climate and his habits permit of no further exertion. If he is an agriculturist in the provinces he has few interests in life beyond those relating to his household and his village, and the bulk of the population, as will be seen from previous chapters, is composed of this type—the large and small landowner, the smaller being considerably in the majority.

It is a popular delusion to ascribe to this type of Egyptian an interest in politics, to depict him as the representative of a class whose one aspiration outside of its domestic affairs is a passion for freedom. Compared with the past he has considerably more freedom than he ever dared hope for, and the only freedom he understands is that which applies to the remission of taxation of land or labour. The lesser the taxation with the absence of extortion the greater is his appreciation of those who rule the land, a feeling not alone confined to Egypt. So little interest is taken by this class in contemporary politics in Egypt that as an example I may state that when travelling within a hundred miles of Cairo three months after the murder of the Egyptian premier I was astonished to learn when in company with a group of farmers, who had visited the provincial town on business, that not one knew of the murder of the premier, greatly to the disgust of a young native

official with pronounced Nationalist views, and two were even unaware that a Copt had held office as premier, and that a Nationalist politician had succeeded him. The reason probably was that the majority were unable to read or write, and living some distance from the railway, the news, with native embellishments, had not filtered through to them.

In the vicinity of some of the larger towns the people were more fortunate, or otherwise, as the case might be, for, until at length prohibited, a certain group showed their appreciation of the tragedy by reproducing it as a theatrical performance, in which the assassin's exploit was commended as the act of a patriot. Even here, however, it is questionable in many instances as to whether it was actually understood, for the Egyptian populace are as yet unused to political plays extolling the virtues of those who are fighting the cause of the country's "freedom"; released from the old oppression and possessing the full fruits of their labour and industry, and never having possessed political freedom in any shape or form beyond what they now enjoy, they are unaware that any further freedom is necessary. It is quite beyond their imagination. Any movement likely to affect their prosperity or jeopardise their present privileges they would naturally resent strongly.

The wealthy landowner of the hitherto privileged class, the pasha or bey, in many instances spends his winter in Cairo, where the gay cosmopolitan life attracts him with all its pleasures and fashionable throngs, and maybe his summer at the seaside resort of Alexandria. His is a life of pleasure. His land is either farmed out or administered by his agents,

whilst the absentee owner enjoys the proceeds. Not infrequently, however, as in several notable cases, he has realised the importance of his source of wealth, and takes an intelligent interest in the cultivation of cotton, and being in common with his countrymen of an extravagant disposition, will mortgage part of his forthcoming crop, paying a usurer's interest, to obtain money for the pursuit of his pleasures. Thus it is that the European usurer flourishes in Egypt, providing facilities for native extravagance alike to rich and poor at extortionate rates, until the sale of the cotton crop brings money with which the loans are repaid and a surplus found; soon the period arrives when further loans are necessary.

The misfortune of Egypt is that there are so few wealthy natives who are sufficiently generous and public-spirited to take an active interest in the welfare of their fellow subjects. They have different conceptions of patriotism in Egypt. The atmosphere breathes inertia and the recurring seasons encourage in the capital the pursuit of pleasures. Apart from several groups of politicians, and a few notable instances of the manifestation of public spirit, the public are left to take care of themselves, under the moudir, or mayor. Public duty is the growth of cherished institutions, and there is little evidence of the existence of either in Egypt. Wealthy men who possess the means, influence and leisure to do much in assisting the work of the Administration prefer to devote their days to gossip and their nights to intrigue. The absence of public spirit and devotion to the promotion of the best interests of the people is deplorable. During the summer the country is deserted by all who have the means to leave, the wealthy natives proceeding

either to the Continental spas or to Constantinople, where, as most are Turkish by descent, birth, or relationship, they feel equally at home and escape the heat of the Egyptian summer.

With all his faults the Egyptian is to be credited with several pleasing characteristics; he is usually good-natured and of a generous and charitable disposition. In times of calamity he is ever ready to assist the unfortunate, irrespective of religion or race, and this was strikingly demonstrated by the substantial amount collected in Egypt on behalf of the sufferers in the Messina earthquake. In the war in Tripoli the Egyptians have not been backward in contributing largely to the public subscriptions of the Ottomans towards the cost of the campaign, whilst headed by the Khedivial mother the Egyptians fitted out and sent a large and well-equipped Red Crescent ambulance corps, which the Turks so lamentably lacked. In this the women of Egypt nobly assisted, and further medical assistance was also despatched from Egypt, the cost defrayed by public subscription. The heart of the average Egyptian is therefore in the right place, whilst the patriotic and charitable public action of the women indicates the coming development of the Egyptian women and the useful part they may be expected to play in the progress of the race.

The young Egyptian, about whom we hear so much in the Press, is from many points of view unsatisfactory. From an educational standpoint he is an improvement on his predecessors, because, having gone through the Government schools, and taken his much-prized secondary certificate, he is able to read and write, and has a smattering of other things. In Europe the average young man just embarking on

H.H. PRINCE AHMED FOUAD PASHA, PRESIDENT-RECTOR OF THE EGYPTIAN UNIVERSITY.

Photo by P. Dittrich, Cairo.

the serious business of life soon learns that he has considerably more to learn than the schools ever taught him, and whilst forgetting many things acquired in his youth, he realises the necessity of learning many things thoroughly to equip him for the battle of life. There is also implanted in him, as a result of his home and school training, respect for age and the wisdom of others. The young Egyptian generally shows a disposition quite the contrary, which is partly his own fault, but more the fault of those responsible for his early training. He recalls Max O'Rell's description of our Transatlantic female cousin, that up to the age of eighteen he is allowed nearly every liberty, and after that age he takes the rest! Only in Egypt he usually does it before he acquires even the discretion which eighteen years may bestow.

He is absolutely lacking in discipline and resentful of restraint. He follows his own sweet will, and his principal ambition is to wear fine clothes, a different suit each day of the week if possible, aping the worst characteristics of the European; he wastes his time between the cafés and juvenile political clubs, ogling the foreign women from the side walk or the verandah, for he is usually a nice-looking youngster, with black eyes and regular features. It is unfortunate that so many young lady tourists, attracted by the polite manners and warm glances of the youth, see no harm in what they regard as a light flirtation with him. But youngster though he may be, he is usually married, with perhaps a family, idling away his time in pleasures and living on the maintenance provided by his parent. The youth, however, puts upon the flirtation quite a different interpretation, as it is impossible for him

to indulge in any intimacy with a female of his own race, married or single, other than his wife, without a construction being placed upon his motives in keeping with Oriental ideas on the subject. A French writer on Egypt has stated, with but little exaggeration, that during the season in the fashionable resorts of Egypt, and in Cairo in particular, the young Egyptians parade the public places simply for the purpose of becoming acquainted with young lady tourists and boast openly of their conquests, the majority having several to their credit during the season. It may be the climate or the environment which causes a lapse of proprieties and an absence of restraint, but it is evident that many things are tolerated socially in Cairo which would be unlikely to occur in Europe, especially in London, or in America. Class distinction would be the first impediment, for the fair tourist, usually so careful in this matter at home, never thinks of questioning the class of her Oriental acquaintance. It is sufficient for the purposes of a promiscuous acquaintance if he be well-dressed, polite and nice-looking. Probably if the young ladies given to such frivolities overheard and understood the comparisons of their conquests made nightly by these young men they would alter their demeanour towards them. These youths share their exploits with certain dragomen, or guides, and openly exhibit postcards and letters, breathing stupid sentiments or implying admissions, which few young women of the class visiting Egypt would care to see bandied about among their young male friends. The young men of Egypt who indulge in this sort of pastime have but one object in view, and can only, in the intimacy of a female acquaintance, conceive that such object is recognised and

admitted. It would be well for preventing the lowering of the standard of European womanhood, if young, impulsive women, smiling harmlessly in their health and good spirits on the world generally, with the delight of visiting an Oriental country for the first time, where all is brightness and colour, would bear the ambitions of this type of native youth in mind and keep him in his place.

From childhood the Egyptian boy rules the establishment: is he not his father's son? The mother plays but a small part in the family beyond having had the honour of bearing her august husband an offspring. As soon as the youngster can talk the servants are his slaves and must do his bidding. From childhood he acquires the bad habit of domineering over those beneath him, and is spoilt absolutely from his birth. The lad is thus not given a real chance to acquire the invaluable habits of discipline, respect, and self-restraint. He is free to chastise the servants at an age when in an English public school he would have to be holding his own among the other boys and would promptly get his nose rubbed in the mud by his schoolmates if he paraded any such attributes as are acquired by the average Egyptian youth. Small wonder that at the age of sixteen he is an unbearable, passionate, domineering, conceited young cub, with a knowledge of domestic matters, and, a little later, a passion for intrigue that would make many a healthy young Englishman blush. Knowledge of certain matters which comes to the European later in life is within the experience of the young Egyptian constantly from boyhood, in the company of men, coarse in their conversation and ideas, and hearing from childhood the usual stories which characterise the harem.

At an age when the English boy leaves the public school the Egyptian youth is married, frequently before that age, and his wife is a girl of from thirteen upwards. If his parent has sufficient political influence—for "graft," as the Americans call it, still plays an important part in public life in Egypt—the lad, by virtue of his secondary school certificate, which would not bear comparison with the fifth-form certificate of a London board school, and the influence mentioned, makes his way into a Government office. As in France, a Government position is usually the height of ambition, for the fonctionnaire is an important personage. He then, with the aid of his father's allowance, sets up an establishment of his own, and considers his duty to his country well performed by working a few hours daily in the office, and spending his leisure in pleasure and frequently dissipation. If he has any energy left to devote what to him are serious purposes, it is to read his native political newspaper and to become a member of a political club attached to some special party. There he dreams and talks of the need of his country's emancipation, and of the treachery and oppression of the British, who have seized his country and are exploiting it for their own profit and wicked purposes.

Religion, though he is a Moslem, plays a comparatively unimportant part, for actually the majority of the Egyptian youths in the towns of the middle and upper classes, apart from religious observances enforced by custom and lessons of childhood, are rapidly drifting into agnosticism. They may parade their religion for political and racial purposes, but it exerts very little real force in the life of the young Egyptian of to-day. A considerable number of

students, of course, proceed to the ancient and celebrated Al Azhar University of Cairo, the largest seat of Moslem learning in the world, with its twelve thousand students. These go through a course of study of the Koran and kindred religious subjects, thus escaping military service, but the education imparted is purely religious and has no bearing on a secular education for the professional, agricultural, and commercial pursuits.

The pity of it is that the young Egyptian, who is a youngster of much promise, usually of a bright, genial disposition, with, in numerous instances, marked, natural ability, is the outcome of such a wretched environment. The element in his education which is lacking is that imparted by an educated, pure, and dignified motherhood. Nowhere as in Egypt is seen the need for the realisation of the truism that "the hand that rocks the cradle rules the world." When it is seen from the educational returns given elsewhere that only three per thousand of the women of Egypt are able to read and write, and that the women are confined to the seclusion of the harem, with nothing to employ their minds but the direction of the servants of the household, who usually follow their own instincts, there is little opportunity and perhaps inclination for the mother to play her part in the moulding of the character of the boy as in the case of her European sister. The life of the harem is generally far from wholesome, with its unpalatable gossip and frequent intrigue. The knowledge of domestic hygiene of the native women—apart from the well educated and refined Turkish women—is so deplorably limited that the interiors and offices are often to European tastes indescribably filthy.

The young Egyptian is unlikely to change to any great extent until his mother is educated sufficiently to recognise the important part she should play in her son's home education and moral training, from his infancy upwards, and not to leave these to the questionable guidance of native servants, little removed from slaves. The child is the father of the future and needs the mother's protecting care and guidance. It is disheartening to teach the child certain rules of behaviour and of health in the schools which are absolutely unheard of in the homes. They are left behind within the school portals.

Many of the Egyptians realise this, especially those of the younger generation who have either travelled or lived abroad, and know from experience the advantages and duties of an educated and devoted motherhood. They are consequently seeking for educated wives, but there are the serious prejudices of old custom and others to surmount, and it is not yet easy for them to obtain responsible and educated wives, soon to become matrons, when wedded at the age of fifteen! Still, the educational movement for girls is growing, and growing rapidly, while it is gratifying to see that the girls take to their studies seriously and intelligently, surpassing easily the boys in progress and attention to their lessons.

The Egyptian scholar, who occasionally demonstrates and is generally a pronounced Nationalist, varies in age considerably from the English scholar. He enters school later in years, and the higher forms are made up mostly of young men, many of them being married, but residing with their parents. The want of discipline instilled by early training and the valuable lessons derived from sports, in obedience and self-restraint, are lacking. The scholars fre-

quently defy their English and native masters, are not above reading their political newspapers or French novels when the backs of their masters are turned, and when discovered and subjected to punishment write to their pet newspapers, which gladly insert anything in defiance of authority. They seldom go through a term without a strike. They then organise processions, draw up a detailed list of their grievances, and worry and intimidate by pulling Nationalist strings to such an extent that the Ministry of Education, after publishing penalties, generally compromises or gives way altogether.

The Ministry of Education is a weak-kneed administration in dealing with noisy, unruly scholars, and in 1910 became a subject of derision even among the scholars themselves. If the masters were given a free hand as regards corporal punishment, with powers to expel, school life in Egypt might become a more serious, respected, and useful undertaking. But as in other departments, the native officials responsible have not yet developed that sturdy, dignified attitude arising from consciousness of when they are in the right, which makes them ignore native Press criticism with its personal abuse—to which they are extraordinarily susceptible—and decline to be intimidated by wilful boys who choose to absent themselves from school. They are too weak in the knees and fail to realise that the abuse of the native newspapers and the clamourings of the boys can do them no harm, or even assail their dignity, whilst the scholars are the sufferers. The ministers succumb inevitably. As with other things, it takes time even to educate and develop the public minister, and the essential attributes of a successful minister are not developed in Egypt in a day.

In evidence of the weakness of a public minister and his susceptibility to native newspaper criticism, the following instance occurred recently, and the facts are given after the official reports have been investigated and the minister concerned interviewed. It also illustrates the difficulty in which a conscientious English officer may be placed.

It appeared that the British head-mistress, Miss Johnston, of the Sanieh Girls' Training College, the most important girls' educational institution in Egypt, had reason to expel a native girl scholar. She did so in full exercise of her authority in consequence of the girl's behaviour, the offence reported officially being such that the action of the head-mistress was justified, and was necessary for the protection of the other scholars, and for the reputation of the school. No exception at the time was taken officially to the action of the head-mistress, who continued to enjoy the confidence of her superiors as a highly trained, competent directress, with considerable experience in her special work in Egypt. Subsequently, it was generally admitted that the lady possessed to a considerable extent the personal confidence of influential native families, who committed their daughters' education to her care. In other words, by hard work and skill the lady had created such a high standard in tone and tuition that many Moslems relaxed their prejudices and allowed their daughters to attend the college.

The guardian of the girl was insistent on the girl being allowed to return, but the head-mistress, having made a special study of the girl's character, declined to readmit her. Correspondence with the authorities having also failed, the guardian followed the usual course of attacking the Egyptian Minister

of Education in the native Nationalist Press, and, having sufficient means at his disposal, he was able to continue the campaign of abuse. The usual result followed, and the head-mistress was asked by the minister to take back the girl, which she refused to do. Subsequently, she was ordered to readmit the girl, which she did, but again discharged her for a similar offence, although she had taken the precaution of isolating her. The head-mistress declined to reinstate her, appealing to the English school inspector and to the British Agent. In consequence the head-mistress was suspended, and a commission of discipline was appointed to try her for breach of orders which she admitted, pleading her authority and her regard for the tone of the school as an excuse. She remained suspended for some months and eventually was appointed to a much inferior position. Her appeals to Sir Eldon Gorst were in vain, he maintaining the attitude that she had committed a breach of discipline in declining to obey the minister's orders. Much indignation was naturally felt at the time by the British educational staff in Egypt at the treatment extended to the lady, and this was intensified when a French mistress from an inferior school was appointed in her place and the girl discharged for improper conduct reinstated. Consequently, such an occurrence, one of several, renders the position of the British master or mistress awkward and unsatisfactory indeed. It is only right to add that the lady had the warm sympathy of many Egyptian families, as she was extremely popular with her girl students, consideration for whose moral welfare had led her to commit a technical breach of discipline.

It is hardly to be expected under such conditions

that the educational result, having regard to the training of the characters of the pupils as well as their mental development, is as satisfactory and as successful as it might be.

Turning to the poorer classes in the towns and in the country, the few that are educated have secured the most elementary instruction in the kuttabs, where they acquire a slight knowledge of the Koran and a smattering of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The children commence to labour in the fields, in common with other Eastern peasant children, at an early age, and, as young men, follow quickly the occupations of their fathers, the only break being to do their service in the Army, for in Egypt every able-bodied young man must be prepared to perform military service or become exempt by payment of a certain sum. It is pointed out elsewhere that the peasant of Egypt is a simple, quiet and cheerful soul, who is quite content with his lot, and with plenty of water and bright sunshine his position is a lucky one compared with peasants of other lands. He is naturally frugal, and on the whole industrious, and is quite happy in his hovel of sun-dried mud bricks with his small piece of land, his family and domestic and field animals. He is extravagant at a wedding and a funeral, the expense of either generally impoverishing him for years after.

His greatest delight is to attend the moulids, or huge fairs, which are held in various parts of the country throughout the year, according to the regulations of the authorities. The moulid at Tanta in 1908 was a typical one. It had not been held there for eight years, and the popularity of its being held in this important town was indicated by the enormous crowd of fellaheen and others who assembled during

the week in which it lasted. Altogether it was computed that some 350,000 persons visited the fair, the State Railway alone issuing some 251,000 tickets to and from Tanta.

The customs of the fair and the many religious ceremonies which it embraced cannot very well be described. Thieves and vagabonds of every nationality and description were very much in evidence, and the police had a busy time dealing with offenders. As might be expected with such crowds, fights were numerous. Some of them assumed a rather ugly aspect, any available weapons being used by the fellaheen in settling their disputes. Only one affray ended fatally, a man being trampled to death.

The procession of the Khalifa at noon on the Friday marked the closing of the fair. Thousands of people lined the streets and occupied the balconies. The crowd was very orderly, and the procession, headed by police, after passing through the main streets returned to the mosque. The procession itself was a very interesting and picturesque sight, and one which is hard to describe owing to the various religious ceremonies which attended it. The Khalifa was the object of much attention from the fellaheen, thousands touching his scarlet cloak that their sins might be forgiven. To the average European mind it seemed hard to realise that the procession was taking place in the twentieth century.

One vice of the low-class Egyptian is his cruelty to animals. Although he is so largely dependent on his horse or ass for his means of livelihood, and despite the energetic work of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, established in Cairo and other towns, and the punishments inflicted through its agency, the widespread ill-treatment of dumb animals,

especially beasts of burden, continues. Horses are daily rescued in the streets in shocking condition, starved and covered with huge sores, the latter due to harsh treatment and overwork. The native carter is the principal offender, and, as a goad, frequently prefers a stick with a wire nail protruding from it, to a whip. A visit to the society's infirmary at Boulac offers always some sad spectacles of the native's brutality and lack of humanity. To some extent it may be due to the general ignorance of the class in question, but this is not a satisfactory excuse. It is a common offence, and to the European community are due the initiative and sustained efforts to check it by legal means. In no country is the evil so much in evidence as in Egypt; it is a trait of the low native character which is most regrettable, and one would wish the remedy to arise from a sense of humanity among the people themselves and not through penalties enforced by foreign effort in the tribunals.

It will be seen that the bulk of the Egyptians are Moslems, who generally are much less strict in their observances and customs than the Moslems of India and the Far East, although the Egyptians are now distant but a few days from Mecca since the advent of the railway, the pilgrimage to the holy city and the prophet's tomb being the chief event in the religious life of the Moslem. The further away the Moslem dwells from the sacred city the greater his devotion and the more strict apparently his observance of the rules of his religion.

The Egyptians generally cannot be charged with religious fanaticism, for it is seldom obtruded by those of the class which is constantly in touch with Europeans.

The Egyptians who follow the Christian religion are the Copts, and they represent but a small portion of the people. It is claimed that these are the actual descendants of the ancient Egyptians. Their branch of the Christian Church is one of the eldest. Between the two sections there is frequently much bitter feeling, for the sympathy of the Copts is with the Occupation, as they see in it security of life and position, the protection and development of the country and its institutions, and their own safety. They fear a withdrawal of the British would result in their persecution and extinction by the fanatical element of the Moslems, and if the rabid abuse by a section of the native Moslem Press be taken as an indication, there is sometimes reasonable justification for their fears.

Educationally the Copt is generally superior to the Moslem, but not much. His religion, simple as it is, exercises a controlling influence and acts perhaps as a greater incentive. The bulk of the subordinate official appointments are held by the Copts, who, being Christians, have naturally seized the opportunities offered by the foreign mission schools. The Coptic community in certain places, particularly at Assuit, is an influential one, and their leaders have given much indication of a tolerant and earnest public spirit.

The relations between the Anglican and Coptic Churches are most cordial, representatives of the native Church being invariably present at an important Anglican function. The former preserves its ancient ritual and customs.

Among its institutions is the ancient Coptic monastery of St. Anthony at Wada Araba, which lies at the foot of the mountains called South Qalala,

distant about four days' camel ride south-east of Helouan, and about twenty-five miles from the Red Sea.

The monastery is a marvellous old place, and dates, according to the statement of the monks, from A.D. 258. About 500 years ago the Arabs seized it and held possession of it for about seventy years, damaging the buildings, after which period it again passed into the possession of the Copts. At present there are twenty-three Coptic monks in residence. In addition to the monastic buildings used as residences, outhouses, etc., there are no less than four churches within the walls. One of these is undoubtedly very old, two are comparatively old, whilst the fourth is a new building. They contain some fine old Coptic paintings.

The walls encircling the monastery and the grounds are about 45 feet high and of enormous thickness, about 15 feet on an average. Admittance to the monastery is obtained by means of an immense iron-bound door, which it takes six monks to move. The door is secured with a huge wooden bolt. Dangling from the wall near the door is a rope attached to a bell which is rung to secure admittance. On leaving visitors do not pass out through the door but are lowered from the top of the wall to the ground by means of a rope and a capstan. They raise and lower camels, cattle, and human beings by this means, so the door is apparently seldom opened. The wall is built of limestone surmounted with mud.

The monks hold three masses daily, and grow delicious grapes and figs. They also grow large quantities of olives, from which they extract the oil.

According to Curzon the Coptic patriarch is always selected from this ancient monastery of St. Anthony. The monks are very kind and hospitable to visitors.

In costume there is no distinguishing feature between the Moslem and the Copt—they dress either in the native galabeah or in foreign clothes, with the inevitable red tarbush as a headdress. The women of both religions dress the same.

They possess in common a hatred of the Syrians from Asia Minor, who, trained in the American mission schools, flock to Egypt in large numbers, entering the Government service, serving as clerks and interpreters in commercial offices or engaging in business, where their nimble wits and perseverance enable them to thrive, for although Christians they have all the successful characteristics of the Jews. Many of these have held high and responsible positions in the administration, due to their ability and perseverance.

It is remarkable that although Egypt and the Soudan attract the foreign archæologist in increasing numbers, many of them being recognised authorities on Egyptian antiquities and history, the Egyptians, either Moslem or Copt, should have indicated hitherto but little aptitude and ability in this important direction. The natives themselves complain that the Government is to blame in not encouraging the Egyptians to engage in this fascinating pursuit by instituting a school for the study of Egyptology, which complaint is to some extent unreasonable in a country where every pound is required for modern regeneration, the research work into things ancient being well left to the wealthy foreign institutions possessing the enthusiasm and the experts. There is, of course, the famous museum in Cairo, at the head of which as director is that famous Egyptologist, Professor Maspero. If the Egyptians themselves were keen in this matter it would be quite easy

with so many wealthy natives, to endow privately a special school, but among them all there is only one who has the reputation of being an expert in ancient Egyptian monuments and civilisation, namely, Ahmed Bey Kamel. In the days of Ismail Pasha there was a school for Egyptology which was attended by six students, but there exists now no trace of the school or the scholars. It is a pity that a wealthy native does not endow such a school, securing the services of the learned Egyptian referred to, who, it is understood, would be quite willing to impart instruction. It is pleasing, however, to record that Sir Eldon Gorst, during his last year of office, made provision for the institution of a school of archæology.

ABD, EL-AZIZ FAHMY, SECRETARY OF THE UNIVERSITY.

CHAPTER XI

PARTIES AND POLITICS

THE progress of education in Egypt and the growth of the native Press have contributed largely to the development of the native political parties. The Egyptian loves politics; they bring notoriety; they are with him a ruling and absorbing passion. Under the protection of the Occupation, and the sympathy derived from the British encouragement of the spirit of independence, carrying with it liberty of speech and writing, politics in Egypt have been nurtured and developed to such an extent as to become the principal occupation of those ardent Egyptians who resent the presence of an alien administration and political tutelage, believing that the country has now reached that stage when it can be governed by its own people and take its place, like Greece, among the favoured nations. An important factor in this movement is the Moslem religion, the presence of which frequently betrays itself, however much the native politician may maintain the contrary. The Egyptian of to-day is a changed individual since the advent of the British in 1885; he has developed independence and confidence; his former servility exists now only in the uncultured and simple fellaheen. The development of the country's resources, the presence of the many Europeans who flock to exploit it, the introduction and progress of those

institutions representative of modern civilisation, signify to the Egyptian the importance of his heritage and the necessity of preserving it for his own enjoyment. Formerly he possessed few privileges; he has so many now that he aspires to the highest—the government of Egypt by the Egyptians and the fullest recognition of the Moslem religion. Lord Milner's views will find general endorsement that "The undoubted benefits which Egypt has derived from British administration have made no impression on it. And they never will. This is the first thing we have to recognise. There is no bridging the gulf between East and West. In Egypt, as in India, as in every Oriental country subject to European rule, no amount of good which it may do will ever make the alien administration popular. It may be more or less patiently submitted to, but it will never be liked, or even appreciated. And, indeed, in a sense, the better it is the more difficulties it will create for itself."

Native political aspirations in Egypt are directed chiefly against the retention of the British control of the country, that "control which is essential to Egyptian welfare and to European peace." It needs only a reference to the educational statistics published in a previous chapter to realise how limited is the actual representation of the people by the various parties of politicians. There are practically four parties in Egypt to-day, which may be divided as follows:—

The extreme Nationalist, who is naturally the most aggressive, desiring nothing less than evacuation by the British, and the government of Egypt by the Egyptians and for the Egyptians. The late Mustapha Kamel was the leader of this section, and

had he lived there is no doubt it would in time have developed into a large national movement which would have united the natives of all shades of political opinion, aiming at the entire control of their own affairs. He was esteemed as a patriot, and undoubtedly possessed virtues as an individual and qualities as a leader of a national movement which have not been found in another candidate. At present the leadership of this party is aspired to by several individuals, one being the brother of the deceased leader, but the mantle of the founder of the movement has not yet been cast upon the shoulders of any recognised successor.

Each political party possesses its own special daily newspaper, whilst other papers represent the sections of the party. In the case of the advanced Nationalists *Al Lewa* is the recognised organ, which is under the direction of an editor, Sheik Shawish, who was formerly a professor of Arabic at Oxford University. Its adherents number now about ten thousand.

The second party, the "Party of the People," might be termed the "moderate Nationalists," who are not so aggressive or so clamourous as the former. This also has several representative leaders, and its special newspaper is *Al Garidah.*

The third party is that representing the Khedive, its organ being *Al Moayad,* which has the largest and most influential circulation of any daily newspaper in Egypt, a circulation varying from 10,000 to 13,000 copies per day. Now that H.H. the Khedive enjoys the friendliest relations with the British representative the principal object of this party is to preserve the power and influence of the Khedive, to protect him and his policy against the attacks of the

Nationalists, and to uphold the Moslem religion as the state religion.

The fourth party, the "independent Egyptian party," is representative of the Coptic community and many of the influential and wealthy Moslems. It aims at representative government in Egypt, irrespective of race and religion.

With a literacy of population of but 85 per 1,000 the advanced Nationalist Party claims to represent the people in demanding the evacuation of the country by the British and the establishment of Egyptian independence. This is the party which has produced the political unrest in Egypt that recently culminated in the murder of the Prime Minister, and is doing so much harm to the country by retarding its progress and in shaking foreign confidence. The fruits of its efforts so far have simply resulted, in the language of the British Agent, in "putting back the clock." Every year ardent political souls attached to this party, generally young students residing in Europe, meet together to hold a "conference," usually at Geneva. Recently they aspired to meet in Paris, and gave vent to their feelings in a series of resolutions condemning the partiality and wickedness of France because its Government intimated to them that such a conference in the French capital was inexpedient and undesirable considering the cordial relations between the two countries and the recognition by France of Britain's position in Egypt.

The annual "conference" serves the harmless but amusing purpose of a blow-off for Nationalist feelings and ambitions, which have accumulated under high pressure during the intervening period. The speakers, airing their recognised grievance of being

unable to control their country's affairs, invariably wind up with a bitter attack upon the British Government, and all connected with it, except those English and Irish members of Parliament who consider it their duty by their presence and speeches to help on the cause of Egyptian nationalism, one recognised Socialist firebrand on the last occasion, if the newspapers reported him correctly, even urging the Egyptian Army officers "to prepare for the future." He was not quite as explicit as he might have been, even for the benefit of the said "Army officers," and the only purpose his utterance served was to invite a comparison between it and the sensible advice given by Mr. Roosevelt to the native officers at Khartoum on loyalty and duty. These virtues apparently do not weigh with one who considers that his task as a member of the British legislature is to do his utmost to stir up Eastern racial feelings in Egypt and India, thus retarding the peaceful and progressive administration of those countries by officers who are conscientiously performing their duties. Such utterances incur the gravest risks, and apart from the speaker's obvious ignorance of the subjects, cannot for this and other substantial reasons be too strongly condemned. But the Nationalists rejoice exceedingly, considering the presence of such men in their midst as a distinct and valuable acquisition to their cause. The speeches are laboriously translated and circulated—as much as the Press regulations will now permit—in the native newspapers, for the purpose of inflaming native feelings. But these annual pyrrhic displays really cause little damage, as they are held outside the country and would be unheard of by the European public but for the summaries published by newspaper

correspondents. They carry no weight and can have no importance. They do not in the least influence the attitude of the British Government towards Egypt, and it is unlikely that they are ever read or considered by the British representative, who would indeed be a poor representative if he were influenced by such methods, emanating from a band of students, sent to Europe to study seriously for professions and not to debate abstract politics.

The propaganda of the Nationalist Party is carried on chiefly by public addresses of the leaders, who vary the monotony of party politics when subjects run dry by abusing one another in characteristic Oriental fashion, in language sometimes unprintable, and in their particular newspapers. Occasionally, as events permit, the committee organises a demonstration, but since the rioting in 1910, which led to the fire brigade being called upon to disperse the mobs, police regulations have been issued to check this nuisance, for a nuisance it proved to be in addition to inviting serious breaches of the peace. On the last occasion, although the demonstration purported to be a gathering of schoolboys, it was unquestionably organised by the Nationalists, and Nationalist agents were everywhere in the ranks calling upon the boys to cheer seditious utterances against the Government and its ruler, and to give groans and curses for the British. When the crowd was being dispersed by the police the Nationalists replied by pelting the constables with portions of marble tables, bottles, and stones, the police being compelled to draw their swords in self-defence. But the fire brigade did the dispersing! When mobs of scholars and Nationalists congregated after this the police called out the firemen, always with successful

results, and the Nationalist Press retaliated by publishing statements to the effect that the authorities played on the students with boiling water—this apparently being the native reporter's impression of the functions of the steam fire-engine.

Recently the licence of the Nationalist Press developed to such an extent that it was imperatively necessary to introduce Press laws to control these organs of mendacity. The culminating point was reached when *Al Lewa* (*The News*) published the most outrageous lies concerning a small expedition in the Soudan, alleging that most barbarous excesses were committed by the troops and the authorities. Proceedings were taken against the editor in the native courts without result.

On one occasion when visiting the editor of this particular paper, I expressed my surprise that a man with his education and position should stoop to be identified with methods so utterly unworthy of either the cause or of any respectable newspaper, apart from his own reputation as the editor. The reply was characteristic of the methods of the party, and of the depths to which it has sunk since Mustapha Kamel's decease; he said, that if such statements were not published the people would not buy the paper. They demanded spicy news and personal abuse, and the paper had to supply it, hoping thus to encourage the cause. Since then the same editor has been sentenced to imprisonment by the Government for slander and lies, but this has only had the effect of glorifying him in the eyes of his supporters as a martyr in a national cause. It is much to be regretted that such a cause should require such methods to promote it, and that so able a man, otherwise respected for his qualities and personal gifts, should degrade his

abilities and position by descending to such depraved and gutter methods.

Another leader of the Nationalist party, alluded to recently by a responsible London newspaper as "that distinguished statesman," was punished last autumn for libelling in *Al Lewa* the director of the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital in Cairo, and I believe the London paper mentioned made the reference above in taking exception to some other punishment meted out to the leader for sedition. To illustrate the methods of the party, it may be stated that the libel was of the grossest description, and was brought before a lower court, as a civil case, in the spring, allowing only nominal damages of £100 to be claimed in order to expedite proceedings. This, however, failed, for the "distinguished" or "eminent" statesman promptly vanished from Egypt to the Continent, and proceedings had to be delayed until he returned. The medical director and his invaluable work at Kasr-el-Aini Hospital—the senior hospital and medical school of Egypt—are too well known and respected for the attack to convey to any person any other impression than that of being a base and disgusting libel. In an English court the defendant would have been punished for criminal libel, however eminent in the eyes of the ultra-Nationalist party his "statesmanship" might have been. These are the methods of the Nationalists, which naturally appeal neither to sensible Egyptians nor to Europeans resident in Egypt, who might sympathise with a cleanly-conducted, honourable Nationalist movement, however inexpedient they might consider it to be. Few can take exception to the aims of a national patriotic movement, least of all Englishmen, which has clearly for its object the advancement of the country and the progress of the

people. The country's so-called emancipation might even be welcomed when it shows by its actions a capacity to emancipate itself, and that emancipation is not only the will of the Egyptian people, but of these wealthy Europeans whose presence in large numbers has assisted so materially in its development and prosperity. The British, against whom the abuse of the Nationalists is so frequently directed, would be the first to congratulate the Egyptians on their rise to greatness when they had proved their capacity to govern, but, unfortunately, present Nationalist methods and statesmanship of the above type, however "eminent," even in Egypt, are not convincing attributes or acceptable qualifications to those who have the real welfare of the country at heart and a warm feeling for the people of Egypt. They alienate European sympathy and "put back the clock."

Up to last year the Nationalist executive was very partial to "demonstrations of the people," and the inevitable results were vigorous speeches demanding self-government and the evacuation of the British, carefully prepared for the occasion, and delivered in the Nationalist clubs, with telegrams dispatched to foreign news agencies, and to the British Minister for Foreign Affairs, summarising the resolutions, and drawing particular attention to the size and unanimity of the demonstrations. It was hoped by this means that public opinion in Britain and France would realise the wholeheartedness of the Nationalist movement, and the unity of the people in such demands; also that Sir Edward Grey would lend a sympathetic ear to Nationalist appeals and not be entirely influenced by the reports of the British Agent. People in Egypt who recognised

the character of the "demonstrations of the people" and their component parts were amazed at the effrontery of the Nationalists when reading the telegrams to the home papers which arrived by the mail. But there is one special weakness of the Egyptian politician. He has not been sufficiently long at the game to be able to withstand ridicule. The collapse of the demonstration movement organised for the purposes set forth above, came about in the following manner.

Ourphy Pasha, a relative of the Khedive, is a man of considerable ability and influence, possessing a large following. Were he possessed of sufficient energy and inclination he might to-day organise a movement, supporting the Khedivial party and the quiet progress of the country, which would put an end effectually to Nationalist agitation. But he lacks certain qualities, and the pleasures and ease of the pasha's life exert too great an influence over him for him to devote himself entirely to public affairs. He had been on a visit to Stamboul, and, about the time of his return, the Nationalists, taking advantage of his absence, were indulging largely in the demonstrations.

The result was that his friends put their heads together. Being men of means, and knowing the Nationalist methods, they, with a plentiful shower of backsheesh, hired every native loafer, bootblack, and pedlar in the vicinity of Cairo, organising a "demonstration of the people" from the same elements used by the Nationalists as their stock-in-trade, to greet the pasha on his arrival. In numbers it eclipsed anything the Nationalists had organised, and the thing was so successfully conducted, even to the speeches and resolutions, that ridicule met the

Nationalists for weeks after. One distinguished Nationalist "statesman" immediately departed for Ourphy Pasha's stronghold at Zagazig, to deliver a rousing political address against the pasha and his supporters, but the latter were too strong, and getting possession of a fire-hose they cleared the building of the statesman and his followers. Since then the Nationalist demonstrations have lost favour, and the Cairo Fire Brigade put the finishing touch to such methods of attracting public opinion in dispersing the student demonstrations organised by the Nationalists.

Although it will be seen that the ultra-Nationalists, by their methods, trickery, and licence, are least likely to represent sound public opinion in Egypt, and although it is obvious to those who know the leaders and their ambitions well that they are simply playing to the gallery for popularity and personal aggrandisement, it would be unfair to include all the supporters of the movement in this category. It has been a pleasure to me to meet many of them, who undoubtedly have sincerely the welfare of their land at heart and think as patriots they can now run their own country without European assistance. They are working and hoping, quietly and unostentatiously, and, although bound in principle to the Nationalist party, approve neither of its leaders nor of their methods. These invite respect, for they are patriots, but the difficulty is that they are unable to grasp the exact conditions of the country, its responsibilities and international interests. They are impatient dreamers and close their eyes to facts. Much has to be done and many years to pass before it is possible for such ambitions, however laudable they may be, to be realised. They need to come back to the present!

It will be seen that the energies of the Nationalists are chiefly centred on attacking the British for declining to leave the country. In order to belittle the Administration in the eyes of the people they use their daily newspapers to circulate every wicked and absurd rumour against the officers of that Administration, to bring their efforts and it into disrepute. Oriental methods can never change, and any English or Egyptian officer placed beyond the reach of backsheesh, and declining to hearken to a land claim or to a parent who wishes his son's advancement in a certain administration, is at once the object of attack in the Nationalist Press, the money intended to bribe the official going into the coffers of the Nationalists. The officials need to be absolutely circumspect and possessed of all their wits in dealing with back-stairs influence and Oriental methods, and a sudden attack in the native Press on any particular official or person may be generally traced to some disappointed applicant. The Arabic language in the hands of a scholar lends itself peculiarly to libel and innuendo. *Al Lewa*, for instance, possesses no qualms of conscience, and does not trouble to investigate any report, providing that report lends itself to its propaganda. The native Press of this class even now is allowed far too much licence, and the Government only steps in when the abuse and lies purposely circulated to influence the native mind against the Government and even the Khedive become too personal and intolerable.

When the Nationalists (and it is well to fully explain their methods) run short of material against the Administration, they fall back on attacking the Syrians and Copts, because the latter hold a monopoly of the subordinate positions in the administrative

services, and are on the whole, for the sake of their own safety, favourable to the continuance of the British occupation; for despite every Nationalist assurance to the contrary, the immediate withdrawal of the Occupation would result in the oppression of the native Christians, and possibly in their extinction.

To give the English reader some conception of Nationalist newspaper methods, the following translation of a leading article from *Al Lewa* is a fair specimen, suggesting flashes of Mark Twain's "Journalism in Tennessee."

"ISLAM ALIEN IN ITS COUNTRY.

"*Al Watan* (a Coptic daily) committed the day before yesterday a heinous crime which has doubled the public wrath against it. On that day it besmirched its pages with the filth of libel and the dirt of slander which usually sully its face on every day. It gave publicity to an article by that petty writer who has gained disrepute and recorded against himself ignorance in matter of history as well as the shame of ungratefulness for the benefits he and his ancestors derived from Islam. Had Islam been as pictured in that article neither its writer, Farid Kamel, nor the owner of *Al Watan*, would have been transferred from the bodies of their fathers to those of their mothers (the original Arabic here is too immoral and vulgar to be translated word for word)—to appear in these days with diabolical soul in human form. You two fools, it was Islam that saved you from the hand of the Greeks after many centuries of bondage, during which you were employed as beasts, cursed with tongues, kicked with feet. You threw yourselves into the arms of Islam and it saved your blood and

protected your women and children. Had Islam been as you say, it would have crushed and annihilated you, throwing your remains to the winds to cleanse and purify the Egyptian soil from your black forms. It would have extracted your tongues so that you might not speak, and amputated your fingers so that you might not write. You accepted its rule and it harboured you; you claimed its protection and it supported you, giving you the rights of its own adherents. Furthermore, it allowed you to manage your own affairs and to be your own judges, unless you voluntarily appealed for its ruling and accepted its judgment. How then was 'humanity tortured,' as you say, you fools, amidst people with such a religion and such divine laws?

"For thirteen centuries you were in the bosom of Islam, which cared for you and nursed you while you increased in wealth and numbers. Had you lived for even a quarter of that period with the English they would have made you like the Red Skins of America or the brown race of Australia, roaming in the wild forests and sleeping in the caves like the beasts of the desert. Or had you been the subjects of King Leopold in the Congo he would have made your hair into ropes and your skins into soles. He would have torn your bodies to pieces with lashes and chained you with iron while you carried great weights. Or had you been in Ireland the English would have thrown you away and discarded you just as they do with their old shoes. They would have driven you out of your country with utter contempt.

"We have lived in this country so long according to the tenets of Islam, brothers in nationality, neighbours exchanging visits and advice. What is the reason now of this change in your attitude?

Perhaps you saw that the Occupation people had the same religion as you and you thought of selling them your country and your conscience to sever all connection with us after all these centuries? Such are the doings of renegades and traitors!

"Your shrieks have reached heaven in claiming the right to certain high administrative posts. You say that it was Islam that enslaved and humiliated you, that denied you the right to those posts. You even had the audacity to describe the weakness and wretchedness of Mohammedans, threatening them with revenge. Ah! you may be excused for not knowing what Islam is; but you have treated with contempt the Mohammedans who are in their country like a crouching lion that did not pounce only because it knew that your shrieks were no more than the buzz of flies in the elephant's ears, without the least annoying effect. I do not wonder at your ignorance of Islam and its glory more than I wonder at your ignorance of the rules and laws of this country. Read these different laws, criminal, civil, commercial and others. Do you find therein any distinction between sects on account of their faiths? Read the laws promulgated during the ministry of Riaz Pasha and you will see that the Egyptian nationality was the only condition of public service, without the least distinction between faith and faith. Of course, there are certain posts that cannot be filled except by Mohammedans. These remain in Moslem hands and will always remain so if you open your mouths for shrieking so wide that your upper jaw reached heaven and your lower jaw touched the soil on which your shoes tread.

"The political parties about which you reported falsehoods have not expressed an opinion upon the

question which you claim and upon which you write so much. They have only approved the old-established system of the Government. Read those regulations and pore well through their contents. Ask those who have no intelligence. Ask the boys in their school, and the vendors in their shops, the oxen in their zarebas, the horses in their stables. All these will tell you things that will silence your tongues and make you feel ashamed you are capable of so feeling.

"What end have *Al Watan* and *Misr*, together with Farid Kamel, gained? What is that victory of which they talk so much in vain? They have only over-taxed their vocal chords and recorded upon themselves the shame of abject slavery for the sake of certain posts for which the English use them as mere tools and wherein promotion is guaranteed only to those who implicitly obey the orders of the foreign occupiers.

"*Al Lewa* has refrained for a long time from writing on this trivial subject, for the owner of *Al Watan* has cast away all modesty and revolted against the morals of his country by publishing that article which left no room for patience and made many persons ask the Government to prosecute him and Farid Kamel in accordance with articles 138 and 195 of the criminal code. How these two base persons attack the religion of the Egyptian Government, the religion of our Sultan and Khedive, the religion of the majority, the religion of truth, the religion of justice, the religion of tolerance and equality! You have shown this bigotry and this audacity in attacking Mohammedans and their faith because the Mohammedans have been too generous in dealing with you. You know that had the Mohammedans wished it they could have blown you

to atoms. Silence, you impudent fools! An account lies before you which if neglected by the Government will be backed by eleven million Mohammedans, who will neither neglect that account nor forget."

Another Nationalist journal, the *Masr el Fattah*, is usually somewhat worse than *Al Lewa*, in fact, the advanced section of the Nationalists admire it in preference to *Al Lewa* for the piquancy and vigour of its articles. Recently an Egyptian lady, the daughter of a well-known judge, a lady of acknowledged education and refinement, boldly conceived it to be her duty to deliver a lecture to women on the subject of women's position in the Orient. According to local custom she lectured in the hall of *Al Garidah* (the moderate Nationalist newspaper), and her audience consisted of several hundred Egyptian ladies, who expressed their appreciation of the lecture, which advocated the need of female education and its wholesome influence upon native character.

It was a pleasing innovation, which all intellectual people, whether Egyptians or foreigners, having the real interests of the country at heart, and realising how much depends upon female education and its beneficent influence, will welcome as an indication of progress. An Egyptian journal with such a pretentious title as *Masr el Fattah* should have been the first to welcome and assist in the growth of such an eminently desirable movement; for if the Egyptians suffer from anything it is the need of informed intellectual wives who can commune with them and direct the education of their children. It is female education more than any other cause which will in time bring about the transformation of Egypt, and place it on a higher level. To the lady lecturer, therefore, must be accorded every praise

for her pluck and admirable sense of public duty. But like other reformers she has had to run the gauntlet, and in three issues the *Masr el Fattah* disgraced itself and its profession by publishing disgusting innuendoes against the lady in question and the editor of *Al Garidah*, who kindly lent the salon of his journal for the lecture. It did this, it stated, because the action of the lady in lecturing was immodest, thereby revealing its own ignorance of the traditions of Arab womanhood from whom the Egyptians are sprung. It went even further to enforce its argument, and used objectionable assertions that made its editor deserving of drastic treatment.

The second Nationalist party, which is represented by its organ *Al Garidah*, is moderate in tone and reasonable in policy. It does not indulge in the performances of the acknowledged Nationalist party, and has a following perhaps larger in numbers than the latter, which includes many natives of wealth and influence. It may fairly be considered to have been represented by Ismail Abaza Pasha's Egyptian Mission, which visited England in midsummer, 1908, and met with much hostile criticism from the advanced Nationalists on its return. Its members went to London as a band of political freelances, who thought by maintaining a rational attitude they could bring effectively before certain British public men of affairs several questions affecting the people of Egypt. After the visit of H.H. the Khedive interest in Egyptian affairs in London was sustained, and their respectful application entitled them to a sympathetic hearing. They did not indulge in extravagant nonsense, and their visit, brief as it was, certainly quickened to some degree the interest and sympathy of a few British public men in Egypt.

They also established a connection between Egypt and London, which will benefit Egyptian matters in the future. Their moderation has achieved something, however little. It has shown the British public that Egyptian patriots are not all of that curious type which apes the methods and extravagance of Irish extremists. Much may be secured by appealing to the sense and judgment of the British politician, but he declines to be influenced by either threats or drivel. The programme which the mission submitted to a group of English politicians and invited them to support, consisted briefly of the following: The extension of education; the introduction of higher scholastic standards by including additional subjects; the adoption of the Arabic language; the increase of high schools; the Legislative Council to be allowed to control education; the encouragement of technical education in the various towns; Europeans to be tried for criminal offences before the Mixed Courts; competent Egyptians to enjoy their share of promotion in the administrative service.

To most of these one cannot see any reasonable objection; on the contrary, the demand for extension and improvement of education will meet with the approval of all, for what the people of Egypt imperatively need is education. Its application is rather a question of means. The British adviser would no doubt welcome high schools and technical colleges in every town, but in a country just rescued from bankruptcy the difficulty is to find the money with which to build and endow them. Judging from recent instances it is becoming questionable whether the students avail themselves fully of the existing privileges; boys cannot fritter away

their time in politics and learn their lessons at the same time. There ought to be a much higher standard of discipline in the schools, but that discipline must also be apparent in the homes of the scholars. Boys who defy their parents are unlikely to heed their masters. Apart from this, the demand for better education with increased facilities is one to be generally and earnestly supported.

Concerning the trial of foreigners for criminal offences before courts other than consular, this is a question dependent on the antiquated Capitulations, and Sir Eldon Gorst's last strictures on the courts hardly warrant any change until certain reforms are effected. The last request concerning the promotion of competent Egyptians depends now entirely on the Egyptian officials. Sir Eldon Gorst made many changes which have led to many native promotions, but, with all deference to the mission, it has yet to be proved that Egyptians can be trusted to discharge honestly and impartially the responsibilities of high posts. Egypt is yet not far removed from the days of official intrigue and peculation, and there are not wanting instances where the Egyptian occupation of a responsible office has resulted detrimentally to the public. European administrators may to the Egyptian sense be objectionable, but they are selected for their efficiency; they are impartial and honest. They are controlled by traditions of public service as yet unknown in Egypt. Finally, concerning the desire to increase the responsibility of the Legislative Council, this in principle is to be commended, but unfortunately with a council that so lightly regards its duties to the country that for weeks it is unable to form a *quorum*, the responsibilities in so important a matter as education

might well be left to the foreign adviser and the provincial councils, who are able to estimate local needs and obtain local funds to assist in its extension. Education should be entirely outside the ring of party politics.

The third party is the party loyal to the Khedive, and this, in numbers, influence and wealth, outweighs the others combined. It is neither intolerant in its religion nor extreme in its politics, for it recognises that the progress and welfare of the country are indissolubly bound up with the British Occupation. H.H. the Khedive takes outwardly little personal interest in politics; at any rate, his interest is not apparent. At one time, during Lord Cromer's term, when the relations between the viceroy and the Khedive were not as cordial as at present, the Khedive unquestionably was concerned in the Nationalist movement, which he financially supported. A Nationalist newspaper, published in English and edited by an Irish journalist, a member of the celebrated *Clanna na Gael*, which had a few years' existence, was supported in its early days by the Khedive, who it is alleged financed it considerably, and it was, with the other Nationalist publications, supposed to be a thorn in the side of Lord Cromer. Since the latter's departure, better relations have existed between the British Agency and the Khedivial Palace, and the situation has changed. The Egyptians complained that Lord Cromer treated the Khedive without sufficient deference and pointed out the fact that Lord Cromer during his term of office sent for the Khedive when he wanted him, whereas Sir Eldon Gorst reversed the arrangement and called on the Khedive.

It can hardly be said that H.H. the Khedive is

personally popular with the people. His party are attached to him because he is the ruler, not because they have any great regard for him personally. In addition to being an extremely wealthy man, for he has profited immensely since the Occupation, he is a keen man of business and a careful agriculturist. He is engaged, when not fulfilling his official functions, in building his railway and developing his many projects and estates. For this reason he does not appeal to the people, and he is as careful in financial matters as his predecessors were extravagant. Consequently he is not as popular as he might be, and his opponents charge him with being concerned solely in the accumulation of riches.

One unpleasant feature is the wholesale traffic in decorations, and it is alleged by well-informed Egyptians that influential and high-salaried officials in the Khedivial Cabinet have been supplementing their incomes considerably by serving as brokers in the sale of Khedivial decorations and participating in the bribes.

In their vanity, the recipients of such decorations ruin themselves by spending more than half their incomes for such acquisitions. Some of them, however, eventually profit by such decorations and ranks; if omdehs, they exercise a greater influence over the villagers and in a short time regain by way of corruption and dishonesty what they expended on their honours and titles.

In cases where they are only notables, they, having once found the way, begin to bring their favourites in their train—in other words, they become brokers themselves. It is a fact, surprising though it may seem, that a number of pashas and beys can hardly write their names, and are almost illiterate.

The Oriental custom of showering gifts at the visit of a ruler continues in Egypt, and there is a good deal of silent criticism hostile to the Khedive.

The aims of the Khedivial party may be summarised in the following, contributed by Colonel Ibrahim Raggi (one of its principal members and a staunch adherent of the Khedive) and translated from the Arabic :—

"It is now some time since the statements of Sir Eldon Gorst were made public, and yet they seem to have passed unnoticed. It was hoped that after such declarations, parties would cease to exist and the trouble caused by them would consequently vanish, for Sir Eldon Gorst frankly revealed his Government's intention towards Egypt and plainly described the gradual method by which a constitution is to be given to Egypt. It would almost seem as though a certain party took pleasure in fomenting discord, so recklessly do they act. Such lawless behaviour can but prevent the progress of Egypt.

"The statements made by Sir Eldon Gorst convey the following broad facts :—

"In the first place the British Diplomatic Agent advises the Egyptians to trust the British Government in its intentions towards Egypt; that neither annexation nor protection is thought of. He desires them to co-operate with the Government in introducing such reforms in education and the provincial councils as would secure for them their ideals.

"In the second place he instructs them to bring forward every instance that might prove that the required councils would do a lot of good and support the Government in the administration of its affairs.

"In the third place Sir Eldon Gorst desires to

explain to them that the inflammatory speeches which are often published in the Press or uttered by speakers to misguide the populace furnish strong reasons to the English people for believing that Egypt is not yet ripe for self-government.

"I deeply regret that those excited Nationalists did not comprehend the fact that statements which were made by Sir Eldon Gorst and which were acknowledged by His Majesty the King of England and Emperor of India ought to have been respected and revered. The English authorities here, including the British Diplomatic Agent, who are bound to execute such statements, have kindly asked us to co-operate with them so as to be able one day to bring about the wished-for result. It is therefore a duty incumbent upon us to observe the following:—

"Instead of devoting our time to the formation of different parties it is essential that we should form ourselves into one body with the object of discussing between ourselves the administration of the country, and working harmoniously with the Government to ensure improvement. The problem of public security is, for instance, very difficult to solve. We all know that the principal element that assists the growth of public disorder is our disregard of the oaths we give before the judge. Having this fault the evidence of most of our witnesses is perjury, and it is almost impossible to detect crimes. Again, we are quite aware that there is scarcely any crime committed in the provinces without the previous knowledge of the omdehs and notables who dreadfully fear the vengeance they are subject to should they identify the perpetrator.

"The contempt of the criminals for the Government and the mistrust of the fellah by the authorities are quite evident from the present prevailing cattle

MIRALAI IBRAHIM RAGGI BEY.

Photo by Galitzenstein, Cairo.

robberies. As soon as thieves get access to anybody's cattle, they send some of their accomplices to the owner of the cattle. This messenger informs the proprietor that his cattle may be restored to him on the payment of a certain sum of money, usually half the price of the stolen beasts. When the owner acquiesces to that and pays the demanded tribute in advance, he gets his cattle the next morning in any field they agree upon. The failure of the authorities to arrest the criminals makes the owners recur to this disastrous method, which is however better than none. They never like to inform the Government of the loss of their cattle, nor do they identify the messenger with whom they make the bargain for the restoration of the cattle. Other thieves earn their living by stealing something more valuable than cattle—something irreparable and dear to both father and mother. In this way they kidnap the young children of rich men and will not restore them without the payment of enormous sums of money.

"Another point that calls for redress is the false news with which certain persons supply the Press.

"Other things that deserve our attention are:—

"To ask the Government to bring cases of irrigation and of sanitary irregularities before the native tribunals instead of the provincial councils. Long ago, when the regulations for irrigation were first enacted, the native courts were distrusted, but now that they enjoy the confidence of the whole population, it is only reasonable to suggest this might well be done!

"To demand better regulations for the property

of orphans, who under the present laws are entirely in the hands of their tutors and guardians.

"To ask the Government to banish the disturbers of the peace from their birthplaces, *i.e.* those of Upper Egypt may be sent to Lower Egypt, where they can be put under careful police supervision. They may be easily identified by the notables who know them by sight.

"These points can be remedied without expense. Amongst other improvements which can only be made by spending money, I may mention the spread of education, the improvement of kuttabs, the extension of the influence of municipalities, the purchase of translations of books on psychology, the increase of the number of secondary schools, etc. We ought to manage the Government budget so that what seems difficult this year may be attained the next year. Still, we may have the power to give preference to one thing or another. The Government will no doubt, as soon as it is convinced of our good intentions, consider our requests. There is only one thing which we must not demand, as it does not comply with the wishes of the British Government, *i.e.* increase of land taxation.

"If we work harmoniously together in that way, we shall probably be able in ten years' time to satisfy the English Government and the Khedive, who would then grant the present councils their full power and influence.

"The Cairo Tanzim is another thing. Only the European quarters enjoy the privilege of having their streets watered and macadamised, while heaps of filth from which emanate nasty smells abound in the native quarters. I therefore suggest that a board of notables should be associated

with the Tanzim authorities so as to prevent any favouritism.

"These are the sort of points that should be considered.

"It is a grave mistake to listen to the vindictive utterances of extremists. It is our duty and still our right to rebuke the members of the Legislative Council who blindly follow the strikers and suggest the passing of a resolution for a constitution. They represent the nation and they ought to have been the first to comprehend the aims of the British Diplomatic Agent, who desired their support in the promotion and advancement of their country.

"The intrusion they made in suggesting a constitution is unpardonable. The question of a parliament is wholly in the hands of the Khedive, who is the only authority entitled to that right. Article 18 of the election code says that the power of the Legislative Council is only consultative, and therefore the members have not the right to intrude upon or discuss the privileges of the Khedive, otherwise they may oppose the Khedive's right in granting medals and ranks or in interfering with salaries—privileges to which he is entitled by brevets.

"Our endeavour to have a constitution and a responsible cabinet is of no avail if the Egyptian Cabinet is to continue under the supervision of fifteen European Powers, each of which is interested in the administration of Egypt. The presence of the Mixed Courts, the Public Debt Office, and financial control over Egypt are stumbling-blocks and formidable impediments. It would be, therefore, more advantageous to wish for the extension of the powers of the present council and to change it from a consultative to an executive influence. If we could only

attain this, Egypt would without doubt rank with the most civilised countries of the world.

"In conclusion, I should like to point out that the results of the present régime in Egypt are that justice is firmly established, corruption is dying away, caprice and oppression are disappearing, and decent Egyptians are enjoying their share of merit and capacity. With the appreciation of all this, I earnestly hope that my dear country will enjoy self-government as soon as we have proved we are fit for it under the recommendation of our honest guides and tutors."

The fourth party is known as the "independent Egyptian party," the programme of which in time admits of great possibilities and far-reaching results. At present the movement is in an academic stage, the party having done little so far to push its views among the people. It is thus explained by Akhnoukh Fanous Effendi, an influential, educated and wealthy Coptic gentleman, who has already given numerous evidences of his public spirit and generosity in educational and other matters pertaining to the welfare of the people of Egypt. It may be well to give his own words:—

"If the Egyptian nation is to secure self-government," writes Akhnoukh Fanous Effendi, the leader of the party of Independent Egyptians, "it is obvious that the first thing to be secured is the friendship and sympathy of England. It is not likely that England, after devoting so many years' labour to this country, is going to withdraw all her claims to it, leaving it to the mercy of Turkey, or, for the matter of that, to that of any other Power who might consider itself strong enough to interfere with it. This is the first thing to be considered, and it is in

the interest of the Egyptians no less than that of Egypt to enter into an agreement such as I have included in my programme. England, secure in her position here in time of peace or war, would have no further objections to the handing over of the reins of government to the Egyptian people. Egypt, assured of protection from foreign aggression, would be able to devote all her energies to the treatment of her internal affairs. The foreign element, exclusive of the English, is also too important an item to be overlooked, as much of the commercial prosperity of the country is due to their enterprise and capital. It is therefore absolutely necessary that they should be taken into consideration from the first, not only because it would be necessary to do so before there could be any attempt made to abolish the Capitulations, but also because it is in the interest of this country to retain their goodwill in order that there may be no lapse in the commercial affairs subsequent to the formation of a constitution. The first principle of my programme is freedom for all, with a non-religious Egyptian legislature at the head of the Egyptian Government. The following is the programme of the party :—

"THE AIMS OF THE PARTY

"(*a*) In order to ensure for Egypt the possession of and command of the Nile, which is the life of the country, Egypt and the Soudan must be one and inseparable.

"(*b*) The independence of Egypt.

"(*c*) The abolition of the Capitulations.

"(*d*) The prosperity and progress of the dwellers in the Nile Valley.

"(*e*) Consider the word 'Egyptian' as comprising those of Egyptian origin and those naturalised.

"(*f*) To facilitate the condition of Egyptian naturalisation.

"THE MEANS AND METHODS TO BE EMPLOYED FOR THE ATTAINMENT OF THESE ENDS

"1. The establishment of real friendship and sincerity between Egypt and England in order to gain the confidence of England.

"2. To retain good and friendly relations with foreigners resident in Egypt, and to guarantee the safety of their rights and interests by a sure and just legislation.

"3. To entirely separate religion from politics, and to ensure perfect equality to all residents in common rights, and of the Egyptians in national rights, and by sure and just legislation, irrespective of race or creed.

"4. The imposition of income taxes on all residents, foreigners or Egyptians.

"5. The making of a treaty between England and Egypt for the purpose of, on the one hand, ensuring the freedom of English trade in Egypt and guaranteeing the freedom of the Egyptian ports and of the Suez Canal to England in the time of peace and war; on the other hand, England will promise to uphold the independence of Egypt and to prevent foreign aggression.

"6. The formation of two constitutional chambers of the country, composed as follows:—

"(*a*) The first chamber, with legislative powers, to be composed of members half of which are to be

elected from foreigners who have resided in Egypt for at least five years, the other half to be Egyptians.

"All members to be elected in such a manner as to fully represent each community.

"The president to be elected by the members; in case of an equal vote the decision to be made by the drawing of a lot.

"In case of an equality of votes on any question in the chamber the casting vote to be given by the president.

"(*b*) The second chamber, for general control, to be composed of deputies elected by Egyptians only, in such a way as to represent each community.

"7. The compulsory preliminary education of both sexes.

"8. The uniformity of jurisdiction.

"JURISDICTION OF THE TWO CHAMBERS

"1. The legislative chamber is competent for:

"(*a*) The passing of laws either on their own initiative, or on the request of the second chamber or of the Government.

"These laws will not be passed before having gone before the second chamber, but only with the object of obtaining and considering its observations regarding them.

"(*b*) This chamber will also exercise a general supervision over the legal courts and the election of foreign judges.

"(*c*) It will also decide in case of disagreement between the second chamber and the ministers.

"2. The second chamber is competent for:

"(*a*) The control of all the actions of the Government.

"(*b*) The control of public education.

"(*c*) The levying and general supervision of taxes.

"UNIFORMITY OF JURISDICTION

"1. One common law, civil and criminal, to be applied to all residents of Egypt, Egyptians or foreigners; one jurisdiction also for all.

"2. In cases of mixed contention the cases are to be examined by an assembly of which the majority shall be foreign judges.

"3. Cases of mixed *status persona* (except of marriage and divorce) will be decided by the laws passed by the national or ecclesiastical authorities.

"4. In like manner Egyptians will be tried by the laws passed by their national or ecclesiastical authorities.

"5. Courts of discipline shall be permitted to pass sentence of fines or degradation to one degree only; anything beyond that must be submitted to the decision of the higher court.

"6. All other administrative trials to be abolished."

Such are the parties and politics of Egypt.

THE SIRDAR.

LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR FRANCIS R. WINGATE, K.C.M.G., K.C.B., ETC.

Photo by Elliott & Fry, Ltd.

CHAPTER XII

THE SOUDAN

FROM 1899 the Soudan has been governed by Sir Francis Reginald Wingate, who, in addition to being the civil administrator, is also the Sirdar, or Commander-in-Chief, of the Egyptian Army. He directs the destinies of over two and a half million people, who are scattered over a vast region of 950,000 square miles. Portions of this territory are still inhabited by fanatical warlike tribes, with predatory instincts; these demand the constant vigilance of the Soudan authorities, whose numbers are so ridiculously small as to consist of merely a handful of hard-working, enthusiastic and competent officials. Foreign Governments support, develop and endow their colonies; our possessions must from the beginning become self-supporting, and, in the case of the Crown Colonies, contribute in addition a substantial portion of their income towards the cost of imperial protection. The Soudan is happily not called upon to do this; on the contrary, it receives from the Egyptian Government a sum of about £200,000 per annum towards its development, which it well earns in protecting Egypt from any possible invasion, previously threatened for so long, and in safeguarding the upper reaches of the Nile, on the waters of which all life in Egypt depends. This latter service alone is an adequate return for the contribution from Egypt, a contribution which

is decreasing with the development of the Soudan's resources. It is a wise insurance policy.

At the present rate of progress in the Soudan it will not be long before the country is more than self-supporting. Capital alone is needed. Its enormous natural resources await development, and there are pleasing indications that British capital will ere long be forthcoming to perform its essential part in the transformation of a great portion of this immense but unfortunately little known region.

"I have," said the Sirdar recently, "great and abiding faith in the future of the Soudan, for such confidence is based upon sound and economic reasons." Those who know anything of the country and something of the Sirdar, of the magnificent work he has accomplished with such miserably inadequate means at his disposal, will share his confidence and respect his knowledge. The wonder is that English capitalists, ever on the look-out for sound investments, have overlooked the call of the Soudan. This may be due to want of adequate knowledge, absence of intelligent public interest or lack of advertising.

What the Soudan needs is a good advertising bureau in London, with funds at its disposal, a thorough grip of its subject and a profound faith in its mission. The country needs persistent booming!

The future of the Soudan is in cotton. Its promise lies in its vast agricultural possibilities. The Soudan authorities, always seeking for any opportunity that will increase their revenue, so sadly inadequate for their purposes, have recently been experimenting in cotton-growing, on a farm covering 300 acres, and although the experiments will be continued for a few years longer, they are already quite con-

vinced that "cotton will form the keystone to the Soudan's future prosperity."

The Government cannot themselves become cotton-growers, so they have made arrangements with the Soudan Plantation Syndicate, which represents them. To put the new industry on a sound and profitable basis a sum of £3,000,000, it is estimated, is required, and this the Government has agreed to supply to the syndicate.

This sum, it is estimated by Sir William Garstin, the former inspector-general of Irrigation in Egypt, would be required for the cost of constructing a barrage upon the Blue Nile, a scheme which would be necessary in conjunction with the establishment of a system of canals to irrigate the land. The Sirdar is of opinion that a return of at least eight per cent. might be reasonably expected upon the outlay on the undertaking. The scheme has also the support of the able irrigation engineer in the service of the Soudan, and there is no apprehension that if put into operation it would in any way affect the water-supply of Egypt; this is a possibility which must always be kept carefully in view by the Soudan authorities in any scheme of irrigation in which the waters of the Nile are to be used.

The possibilities of the Soudan are gradually appealing to capitalists, for recently a British syndicate were negotiating to construct a barrage on the Blue Nile at Sennar, which, it was estimated, would provide for the opening up to agriculture of half a million acres, by a system of canals. There are enormous tracts of land in this vicinity, now served by the railway, which could be made productive by irrigation, and what applies to this district applies also to numerous others. The Government does its best within its very limited means, but

it has no funds at its disposal to cope with the expenditure necessary for the reclamation of vast stretches of land which need only the fertilising waters of the Nile to turn them into productive plains. The means for this development must come from without, and there is every reason to hope that the necessary British capital will be forthcoming to play its essential part in the development of agriculture in the Soudan as it has already done in Egypt. The sound and efficient Government, the settled condition of the people, and an absence of any unrest provide acceptable security to investors, whilst there appears to be no doubt in the opinion of experts, in view of the experiments of the Government, that a substantial return on invested capital is assured if the schemes are carefully carried out.

The opening of Port Soudan, in the Red Sea, possesses a fine harbour, with every facility for the handling of cargo that modern engineering has devised, which is in direct touch with Khartoum by rail, and presents an additional and welcome facility for the quick and cheap transport of produce ; this should act as an additional inducement to the introduction of capital for opening up the Soudan. It is unnecessary now for produce to be carried by rail through the Soudan and Egypt to an Egyptian port of embarkation. The cost of transit is materially lessened, and the opening of Port Soudan has made the Soudan independent of Egypt in the transit of merchandise and native produce. The recent royal visit to this new port has given Imperial approval to the wisdom of this bold but essential undertaking, which provides a magnificent sea-port for the Soudan, quite eclipsing Suakim. It is a wise provision for the future development of this vast country,

as time will show, whilst it is a new, useful, and important link in the chain of Imperial coaling stations and harbours stretching from the Mediterranean eastwards to Aden.

And here it may not be amiss to mention the recent decision in April, 1910, of Maître Mahmoud Rouchdi Bey, the Ministre Publique of Egypt, who was called upon to decide whether the Soudan formed a part of Egypt which came within the jurisdiction of its reformed tribunals. He decided that the Soudan did not form part of Egypt, but was an independent state. His reasons for this decision were that when Cherif Pasha, who was president of the Council of Ministers in Egypt in 1881, was asked to decree the abandonment of the Soudan, then invaded by Mahdism, he preferred to resign sooner than do so. But under his successor the Soudan was abandoned and a government was there created. History records how the Mahdi and Abdallah el Taichi governed; and how Emin Pasha withdrew with his Egyptian garrison, thus rendering that immense territory *res nullius*.

The reconquest of the Soudan was counselled by England, and English and Egyptian soldiers, fighting side by side, destroyed Mahdism. English gold paid in appreciable proportion the cost of the campaign. The conquest created a new state, designated under the name of the Government of the Soudan. There is no possibility of its being a province of Egypt in which the laws of Egypt are applicable. The political situation of the Soudan is that of a new State which has created its own administration and legislation. The Council of Ministers of Egypt established the frontier of Egypt as extending to the twenty-second parallel. The convention of Janu-

ary 19, 1899, between the Egyptian Government and Great Britain is part of public international law, and it makes good the material rights acquired by conquest. The position of the Governor-general of the Soudan is that he is nominated by Khedivial decree, but with the sanction of the British Government. He is responsible to both, and acts in the name of both, with provisions in all the branches of his administration for the working of a newly created state.

Hand in hand with the gradual agricultural development of the Soudan proceeds the task of the education of the natives; but, unfortunately, this important work is considerably restricted through want of money. There are several educational mission schools doing useful work, British, American, and Austrian, but religious proselytising is wisely forbidden in the Soudan, and missionary effort is confined to the education of the children and medical work, for which there is considerable scope. Example may count for much in the Soudan, whilst the useful work of the missions in these directions is worthy of every encouragement and extension. The resources of the Government educational department are limited to the small amount annually allotted, but the money is wisely expended, the most important and interesting feature of the work being the technical education of Soudanese youths. There is much demand in Government offices for native clerical labour, and official efforts are directed to supplying this want, results so far having proved very satisfactory. The Soudanese scholars have proved their value and given every reason for belief that in time the need for employing foreign labour will disappear.

At the head of the Soudan's scholastic institutions stands the celebrated Gordon College, provided by

the wisdom and foresight of Viscount Kitchener, and it is difficult to over-estimate the value of the work this excellent and essential institution is performing. As that of the far-away state of Sarawak, the aim of the educational department, most wisely, is not to produce a Western scholar, but an Eastern scholar, following the best of his own religious and social ideals. The medium of instruction is therefore the language of the country, and not English, and the results so far have justified this decision. There is much need for another good secondary school, as the claims on the Gordon College are many; in addition to the requirements of the Army in the supply of suitably trained military cadets, there are the demands of the public departments and commercial openings for young men which must considerably increase as the country develops.

Technical education also plays an important and necessary part, for the railway, engineering, and river services require skilled native labour, and in addition there are the rapidly increasing demands of the public, in the construction of buildings, the requirements of workshops, etc. The Government technical schools are at Khartoum, Omdurman, and Kassala, which are all flourishing and increasing in popular favour; whilst the Soudanese youngster trained as a mechanic happily shows no desire to desert manual for the more attractive clerical employment. Sir William Mather, the head of the well-known firm of machinery manufacturers in Manchester, has set an example, which might well be followed by other British firms, in equipping instructional workshops as gifts to the Government; whilst the Wellcome Laboratory at Khartoum, the gift of Mr. Henry Wellcome, of Messrs. Burroughs, Wellcome & Co.,

of London, is one of the most valuable contributions the Government has received from outside assistance. There is ample scope in the Soudan for similar gifts to assist in the work of civilisation, and there is no reason why more should not be forthcoming from British manufacturers.

The late Sir Eldon Gorst, in his last report, stated that Soudan cotton produced on the estates of the Soudan Plantations Syndicate in the Berber province had shown that cotton of a standard quite equal to that grown in Egypt can be produced—a fact which further illustrates the potentialities of the Soudan as a large cotton and cereal-producing area, when some system of artificial irrigation can be introduced.

The railway extension to El Obeid is expected to be completed in the spring of 1912. The commercial and strategical importance of this improvement in communications is already apparent, and the line which links up the rich Gezira province with Khartoum and Port Soudan, on the Red Sea, has justified its existence by contributing so largely to the revenue of the Soudan railways.

The population of the Soudan is roughly 2,600,000, but it certainly exceeds these figures and is on the increase. In 1910 the cultivated area, which is steadily growing, showed the substantial increase of 249,600 acres. Of the imports the public now take 64 per cent. and of these the averages are 46 per cent. British goods and 22 per cent. Egyptian produce. Of the exports England takes 10 per cent. and Egypt 65 per cent.

In 1910 the income of the country was anticipated to amount to £1,493,300 and the expenditure to £1,343,000, showing a surplus of £150,000. The estimates for 1911 provided for an income of £1,555,000

against an expenditure of the same amount, the Egyptian Government contributing £360,000 and receiving back £172,000, being payment for maintenance of the army in the Soudan, but this is a further reduction of £10,000 in the contribution by Egypt towards the civil expenditure of the Soudan. Owing to the occupation of the Lado Enclave—the new territory taken over from Belgium, the military expenditure of the Soudan increased by £45,000. The budget for 1912 will undoubtedly show better results, as the trade of the country has of late developed enormously.

During the first six months of 1911 the exports nearly equalled those for the whole of the previous year. The actual figures for the half-year ending June 30, 1911, were £910,770, as against £977,620 for the twelve months ending December 31, 1910. The most satisfactory feature is the relation of exports to imports. In 1908 the proportion of exports to imports was about 27 per cent. In 1910 it was increased to over 50 per cent., and in

Year.	Revenue.	
	Estimated.	Realised.
	£E.	£E.
1898	8,000	35,000
1899	51,000	126,000
1900	158,000	156,000
1901	187,000	242,000
1902	224,000	270,000
1903	428,000	462,000
1904	469,000	576,000
1905	536,000	665,000
1906	622,000	818,000
1907	825,000	976,000
1908	1,000,000	979,000
1909	1,014,000	1,042,000
1910	1,100,000	1,168,000
1911	1,195,000	—

the first half of 1911 the ratio developed to nearly 74 per cent. The further steady and remarkable growth of the Soudan is afforded in the official table on the previous page.

In connection with the railway development in the Soudan, which plays such an important part in the progress of the country, the following table gives a comparison of earnings and expenditure during the last five years :—

Year.	Gross Revenue.	Working Expenses.	Profit.	Percentage of Working Expenses to Gross Revenue.
	£E.	£E.	£E.	Per cent.
1906 . . .	235,669	161,469	74,200	68.5
1907 . . .	298,557	213,354	85,203	71.4
1908 . . .	322,563	251,959	70,604	78.1
1909 . . .	331,662	259,623	72,039	78.3
1910 . . .	391,717	268,285	123,432	68.5

The average goods rate is $\frac{3}{4}d.$ per ton, and the export grain rate is just under $\frac{3}{8}d.$ per ton per mile. The liberal rate policy of the railway is wisely aimed at developing every possible source of traffic. The passenger traffic, especially the fourth class for natives, is rapidly increasing and may be expected to do so.

During 1910, 2,310 kilometres of tracks were cleared and 71 new wells opened. The value of the Soudan as an object lesson in the benefits of civilisation to its neighbours was proved by the fact that a few months ago a request was received from the Abyssinian authorities that an engineer should be sent to advise them on the best method of bridging the rivers and improving the conditions generally on the road from Gambela to Adis Ababa. Captain Newcombe, R.E., has accordingly been despatched to Gambela to meet Major Doughty Wylie and the Abyssinian

representatives. It is hoped that his mission will result in the improvement of communications between Abyssinia and the Soudan, and in a consequent increase of trade between the two countries.

During 1910 public health in the country was good, and there were no outbreaks of infectious diseases of any importance. Sleeping sickness so far has been effectively confined to the new territory of the Lado Enclave, and every effort is made to keep the scourge away from the Soudan.

Much interest has recently been aroused in the discovery that the accumulation of "sudd" on the upper reaches of the White Nile and its tributaries, which has proved such an obstacle to navigation, can be utilised as fuel. Lord Kitchener, during his visit to the Soudan just previous to his appointment to Cairo, displayed much interest in the discovery. An Anglo-German syndicate has been formed with a view to converting the "sudd" into fuel in the form of briquettes. The method of manufacture is the invention of Professor Hoering, and experiments carried out in Germany in the autumn of 1910 have apparently produced satisfactory results, so much so that Captain Benett Dampier, one of the representatives of the syndicate, has carried out more extensive and successful trials at Khartoum. A syndicate, under the title of the Sudd Fuel (Suddite) Ld., is now being floated in London, with a capital of £250,000. The sudd or papyrus region covers an enormous marshy area of 35,000 square miles, and the Government have granted the syndicate, after exhaustive trials of the suddite as fuel, a concession covering an area of approximately 375,000 acres, the average crop of papyrus to an acre being about 180 tons. The growth of the papyrus is said to be so rapid that

in six weeks the plants which had been cut down had grown again to a height of several feet. The cost of producing 50,000 tons per annum of suddite from the papyrus is estimated at 11*s.* 8*d.* per ton, and the Government have the privilege of purchasing 30,000 tons per annum at 24*s.* 9*d.*, and as coal now costs the Government in certain places in the Soudan £4 2*s.* 0*d.* per ton for dredging operations, the saving to the authorities will be considerable. It is also intended to manufacture paper pulp from the papyrus. The briquettes will be used by the Soudan and Egyptian Government railways and steamers as fuel, and thus effect an enormous saving in the cost of coal, which has to be imported.

The most pressing economical problem of the country and of its future is the question of irrigation. Mr. Tottenham, the Inspector-General of Soudan Irrigation, in his last valuable report on this subject observes :—

"In the light of the information collected in the six years which have passed since the formation of the Soudan Irrigation Service, fairly definite answers can now be given to the more important problems for whose solution this service was created, viz., how to rescue the waters of the Upper Nile from the marshes of the southern Soudan, and how and where to introduce artificial irrigation into the fertile tracts of the Soudan. The former problem is now in process of solution by improvement of the Bahr-el-Zeraf by means of dredging operations.

"The latter problem has been solved for Dongola province, where eventually some 150,000 feddans can be irrigated on the basin system ; it has also been solved for Kassala province, where, as soon as railway communication has been provided, over 200,000 feddans

can be brought under basin irrigation from the River Gash.

"It is also nearing solution for the great Gezira plain, and, as soon as it has been proved whether crops other than dhurra can be successfully grown, there will be little but the question of funds and economic considerations to prevent the construction of the Gezira Canal, within whose scope some 3,000,000 feddans can eventually be brought.

"That irrigation of the vast plains lying to the east bank of the Blue Nile and traversed by the River Atbara is possible there is little reason to doubt; so that, when population allows of it, the artificial irrigation of not less than 12,000,000 feddans in the Central and Eastern Soudan, on practically all of which cotton can almost certainly be grown, is well within the bounds of possibility, given that the Blue Nile and Atbara rivers can, without detriment to Egypt, supply the necessary water for such an extensive area.

"This question of water supply dominates the whole of the future development of the Soudan. However, everything goes to show that throughout the major portion of the country water is not required during those months of the year when the rivers' supply is shortest and Egypt's difficulties are greatest, and that, except in the neighbourhood of Khartoum and northwards, the crops the Soudan requires to produce can be grown in the flood and winter months of the year, *i.e.* between July 15 and March 1, between which dates the Egyptian Government makes no restrictions.

"If the above be proved to be the case, the development of the Soudan can proceed without detriment to Egypt; though amply to safeguard Egypt's water

supply, the construction of an elaborate gauging station at Wadi Halfa and the arrangement of some convention between the two Governments is indicated as desirable. By such a convention the Soudan Government would undertake to pass on to Egypt certain minimum discharges for each period of the year, based on Egypt's requirements and the river's natural minimum, leaving the excess to be utilised as the Soudan required."

"Information as to the volumes carried by the Blue Nile throughout the last few years," writes Mr. Tottenham, "indicates that if cotton can be successfully grown during the flood period it may be possible gradually to canalize the 3,000,000 feddans contemplated without detriment to Egypt's water supply, and that, if wheat can be grown during the winter, the extent of the area ultimately capable of irrigation would appear to depend rather on the supply available in the Blue Nile during the months of January, February, and March than on the supply during the early flood months."

With such prospects there can be little surprise at the optimism of the Sirdar concerning the future of the vast country he governs, a feeling shared by his loyal officials. The last words the late Sir Eldon Gorst wrote on this subject will be endorsed by all who have seen the country and have confidence in its excellent administration: "With internal peace, increasing population and promising trade, the Soudan may seem to stand at the threshold of a new era."

It is a pleasing coincidence that two of our ablest soldiers, former comrades-in-arms, should together be called upon to direct the destinies of Egypt and the Soudan. Their work will stand for thoroughness.

CHAPTER XIII

THE DOMESTIC SITUATION AND THE OUTLOOK

THE situation in Egypt up to the advent of Lord Kitchener was far from satisfactory. At that moment the country was quiet, which was due undoubtedly to an attitude of firmness at length adopted by the British Government towards the advanced native politicians; this was shown in the recent legislation controlling the native Press, political demonstrations, political lectures and other means adopted by the Nationalists in promoting their political views. The licence and slanderous statements of the Arabic newspapers, the principal means of inflaming the public mind with revolutionary ideas which threatened at one time to culminate in general disorder, anti-foreign outrages and bloodshed, were checked, and the Nationalists subdued.

The policy of studied indifference pursued by the British Government through its late representative to the growth of Nationalist ideas and cynical disregard of its methods, coupled with the inconsistent and undignified coquetting with Nationalist leaders in the distribution of high offices in the Administration, resulted naturally in an interpretation according to Oriental reasoning: that the Government by pursuing a policy of timidity had signified its fear of the Nationalist movement.

Such a policy also roused the universal resentment

of the British community in Egypt, and their feelings became more acute when they were cognisant of the unfavourable comments of other European residents, whose position forbade any public criticism. After the firm, unbending, and well-understood policy of Lord Cromer there came a reaction, and the policy of his successor, inspired by a Liberal Government in accordance with Liberal traditions and with the best intentions, was one of relaxation, of meekness and compromise which, it was perhaps hoped, would win the regard of the people. To the Europeans it appeared to be a policy of drift, to the people a slackening of control signifying weakness; and a lack of confidence became general in Europeans and loyal Egyptians alike. Instead of pacifying the Nationalist politicians it was an incentive to them to take liberties they would never have dared to take in former days. To them everything was going cheerfully as a marriage bell: they were able to stand up boldly and make the most slanderous attacks on the Administration and its officers, and with plenty of money at their disposal, they won easily through the law courts, which even showed signs of sympathy, thus adding further prestige to their movement. The British lion was being daily bearded by a handful of unscrupulous native politicians, and appeared to take it all as it came, lying down. The Soudan Government instituted proceedings for slander and sedition, without avail, although it carried its case through three courts. The Nationalists were jubilant and defiant; the loyal Egyptians nervous and depressed; the foreigners surprised and sarcastic; the British angry and determined.

The commercial community, still suffering acutely from the financial crisis, were in despair; for, although

NEW GERMAN SCHOOL AT BOULAC, CAIRO.

the British Government appeared to be the least acquainted with the danger to which the country was drifting rapidly, British and foreign financiers were better informed, and closed their purse-strings. No one could honestly say that the condition of the country guaranteed security to new investments; in fact, there were not a few who were concerned as to the security of their existing investments.

All this was as wine and oil of gladness to the soul of the Nationalist, for he realised his power for mischief and little he recked of the continuance of the financial stringency, of loss of trade, or of the holding back of capital needed for the development of the land, its agriculture and commerce. He was at last becoming a power in the land, although in numbers his following amounted to a few thousands only. The repeated newspaper reports from Egypt revealing the position of affairs, strengthened his vanity and quickened his efforts.

Then came the assassination of the premier by one of the young men of the party, a member of an advanced Nationalist club, who only saw in his distardly action an act of noble patriotism, encouraged as he was by the growth of the movement and the promptings of his partly educated colleagues. Even then, when prompt and special measures were justified, which would have crushed the movement for years, the case was left to drag on through the usual tortuous paths of Egyptian legal procedure. This allowed political capital to be made out of it, and even permitted the counsel, leading Nationalists themselves, to stand up and hurl defiance at the Government, for they seized the opportunity to promote their cause, and to jeer at authority. The assassin was esteemed a martyr. After all, he had but slaughtered a Copt,

a creature of the Occupation. Then the Government began to question the wisdom of its action in having appointed a Christian premier over a Moslem people, so, to balance matters and to advertise its impartiality, it turned round and appointed a Moslem and a Nationalist as his successor. It is to be wondered if the Government ever understood the effect of the action on the minds of the people and the interpretation the average Oriental would place upon it.

Then came more timidity, more truckling, want of firmness and continued neglect of opportunity, until Mr. Roosevelt arrived in Egypt, and he, in characteristic American fashion, blunt but effective, went out of his way to say a few straight and timely things to the Egyptian people and the British Government. When he arrived in London he repeated his offence and "fools who came to scoff remained to pray." It then commenced to dawn upon the Home Government that all was not well in Egypt, and that the ex-president of the United States, who was not raw to the game, having had some experience of the regeneration of subject races in Cuba and the Philippines, was endeavouring to do the British Government, presumptuous though his action was, a friendly turn. He had been one of the first to read Lord Cromer's record of his work in Egypt and to acknowledge its value; he saw as an experienced administrator that some elements had been allowed to grow up and develop in Egypt, like fungi, which threatened, unless cut down, to overwhelm the work of one who had brought Egypt back to civilisation and prosperity.

It is true the advice and warnings Mr. Roosevelt gave were but repetitions of the statements continually made in the British Press and by correspondents in

Egypt of the London papers. It needed Mr. Roosevelt's prestige and influence to bring home to the British Government the truth and force of those warnings. It will ever be to the credit of Sir Edward Grey that instead of childishly resenting the advice, he acted as a distinguished statesman should do. He accepted the responsibility and met it promptly, but it is yet a question whether he has gone far enough. The Nationalist legislator is quietened, but not crushed. He is ever ready to break out again, and will do so on the first slackening of British control.

Another factor which resulted in the Nationalist being for the moment subdued, and it is a very important one, which may not have presented itself at the time to the man at home, was the visit of Lord Kitchener to Egypt. At certain times, when reports concerning the movements of this distinguished soldier have appeared in the telegrams from London, published in the Press in Egypt, rumours have circulated throughout the land as to the possibility of his appointment as Agent-General in Egypt. The effect has been magical. There is a considerable element in Egypt, attached to the Khedive's party, of retired military officers, who are the bitterest opponents of the Nationalists. They are mostly landowners or live quietly on their pensions, and are, from their long associations and comradeship with the British officers, the staunchest supporters of the Occupation, for they realise its benefits and its necessity. They have fought side by side with their British colleagues through the Soudan campaign and are worthy types of the best of the Egyptian people, yielding to none in patriotism and love of country. With these are also many retired civil officials, men who have held

high positions, and have large and influential connections throughout the land.

These are the men who prayed that Lord Kitchener might be appointed to Egypt, if it were possible for an officer of his high rank to accept such a position. In an incredibly short time rumours concerning the possibility of Lord Kitchener's appointment to Cairo flashed through the bazaars of the capital, to the towns in the provinces and even the remote villages. A rumour in an Oriental land develops as it proceeds. The result was invariably a significant hush for a time on the part of the Nationalists.

"Lord Kitchener," mentioned one very distinguished Egyptian officer to me, a pasha, who commanded a brigade at Omdurman, and with General Macdonald bore the brunt of the fighting, "is a soldier. He is a man of iron. He made a clean sweep of the Soudan. He is just, but is not to be trifled with. There is not a Nationalist in Egypt," he added with a chuckle, "who would not bury himself in the sand if Lord Kitchener came to Cairo. He is the man for the job, and Egypt would then go ahead fast!" The pasha took no interest in politics, but he considered the position then to be intolerable. As a soldier, and knowing the temper and character of his own people, he despised weakness in the government in any shape or form, and having succeeded Gordon as governor of Khartoum, he was not unfamiliar with the art of governing.

When the Nationalist movement in 1909 was especially aggressive it was this class, and with them were allied the leading notables of Cairo and the provinces, merchants, and land proprietors in Cairo and the provinces, who drew up and signed a petition which they presented to Sir Eldon Gorst. Nothing

resulted, unfortunately, but as evidence of the existence in Egypt of a large and representative body of Egyptians who are opposed to the Nationalist methods, it is interesting to quote a translation of the petition which was handed to me.

The introduction states that the signatories to the petition "deeply regret the situation and hold that both the moral and material situation in Egypt have much depreciated as an inseparable consequence of the rashness of the Nationalists, whose folly has prolonged the visit of the financial crisis and extended its danger to an unbearable extent. It is alleged that the crisis was general all over Europe and that the Nationalists had nothing to do with it—an allegation which is contradicted by the fact that Europe has recovered from the crisis since 1907, while in Egypt things grow worse daily, and the confidence of the financiers in the country no longer exists. We, the signatories, are quite aware of the logical relations and inferences between the crisis and the Army of Occupation, *i.e.* when the army increases there is a salient proof of the continuance of the crisis and an absence of financial confidence, on account of which the money in the Egyptian banks, viz., the National, the Agricultural Bank, etc., is at once withdrawn by the head offices in Europe; thus leaving the country barren and needy. We know that those ardent Nationalists have corrupted the souls of about seven hundred students in attendance at the high schools, students who were the hope and expectation of the nation, and whose rashness and blind impulse predict a gloomy future. We know very well that the grant of a constitution to Egypt is almost an accomplished fact, which will take place sooner or later, but the insanity of the Nationalists

prolongs its postponement. We have therefore agreed to make the following protest against that movement. The protest as you will see has been signed by three hundred landed proprietors, who have the interest of the country at heart. In addition, there are the well-known opinions of Sheik el Islam, the ulemas, as Sheik Abdel Karim Salman, Sheik Abdel Rahim, el Demerdash, and the notables of the families at Madkur, Adly, Siufy, etc., who wholly agree with us and denounce the unsound policy of the Nationalists. There are even besides these some other merchants who do not desire to attach their names, not because of a difference in opinion, but simply to escape the aggressive and unjustifiable attacks directed against them by the native yellow Press, bribed as it is by that destructive party of the Nationalists."

The petition itself reads as follows :—

"NATIONAL PROTEST AGAINST THE FRANTIC POLICY OF THE AGITATORS

"*Presented to Sir Eldon Gorst*

"We, the undersigned, a large party of Egyptians, who are keenly interested in both the material and moral situation of our country, strongly protest against such a frantic and rash policy adopted by a party called the Nationalists, who are fatally endangering our interests.

"We long for independence and for the day when Egypt will become a constitutional monarchy; yet we have every reason to believe that the unfriendly tone adopted by that party alternately against the occupants and the Khedive, the stupid demonstrations that are often organised and led by insane

scholars, and the absence of stability and wisdom in such acts, have not only proved detrimental to our ideals but they have, in fact, persuaded the Europeans to suspect our intentions and inclinations, and to look upon us as their enemies. Thus, by depriving us of the confidence we were enjoying, they have doubled our burden and sufferings under the present financial crisis, which has almost ruined our country.

"We therefore strongly protest against the rash acts of the unwise people, we disavow their acts and assure the Europeans that such agitation has not had the slightest effect on the generous principles of the Egyptian nation. We further request that party to lower and soften its irritating tone and to act wisely and harmoniously with those Egyptians who have the interest of their country at heart, so as to insure success and to secure happiness."

Turning to the existing Government and the cry for a constitution, it may be noted that the legislative power is in the hands of the Khedive assisted by ministers he selects, forming a Council of Ministers. The nation is represented by two assemblies, possessing consultative but no executive power, one being the General Assembly and the other the Legislative Council. All laws which concern foreigners must receive the sanction of the following Powers: Britain, France, Austria, Germany, Belgium, United States, Denmark, Spain, Greece, Italy, Holland, Portugal, Norway, and Sweden. The Government is assisted by British advisers. The executive Government is entirely in the hands of the Khedive, assisted by his ministers.

The General Assembly is convoked by the order of the Khedive, to discuss matters of legislation placed before it by the Council of Ministers. The Legislative

Council, which is a popular body, has been somewhat more energetic of late, since the late British representative took it to task for its slackness. The council now meets in permanent session from November 15 until the end of May the year following, instead of meeting once a month as previously. According to the late Sir Eldon Gorst, the weak points of the council are that "the majority of the members are easily led astray by the more turbulent spirits, and that the chief preoccupation of all of them is to avoid being abused in the native Press for want of patriotism, which is the inevitable result of any support, however mild or platonic, given to the proposals of the Government. With time and patience it may be hoped that the members will free themselves from these faults, and will gradually become able to form an independent judgment on the matters brought before them, without being overawed by the loquaciousness of some of their colleagues, or led astray by Nationalist calumnies. The Government has gone as far as is possible in the direction of giving every facility to the Legislative Council to utilise the powers which they now possess, and no extension of functions is desirable until the proceedings of the council show that such a course can be adopted without danger to the well-being of the community. In this respect I can only repeat what I said in last year's report, viz.: that 'the future development of the institution must depend upon the wisdom and discretion displayed by the members themselves.'"

Under a new arrangement ministers attend the meetings of the council in order to take part personally in its discussions, and the meetings are now open to the public and the Press, which has given the council new dignity and importance.

Hitherto most people in Egypt have declined to take the legislative efforts of the Egyptians seriously. The General Assembly and the Legislative Council have been regarded as preparatory schools of debate, wherein the native aspirants for future parliamentary honours may prepare themselves for the constitutional government, which the great pro-consul believed might be possible after a few decades. Both bodies stand in need of reform from within and without. The grievance of the native public towards the Legislative Council in particular is that it is not representative of the people or their wants. Its members should be elected for their competence to serve, and the possession of a keen sense of public duty, attributes which are lacking in the present members. The system of election stands in need of much revision; wealth and a desire for notoriety should not be the chief qualifications, as they at present are. The extent of the Council's conception of its responsibilities is illustrated by the fact that during the period when the Nationalist agitation was making headway, the members considered it to be their duty to ignore their proper functions, and, after indulging in arid debates on subjects outside their province, passed a resolution demanding a constitution. As a legislative assembly its standard is feeble, its enthusiasm effervescent, its energy spasmodic, its rhetoric flowery and unconvincing.

The General Assembly and the Legislative Council are striking examples of the ineptitude of those who at present aspire to govern. If any confirmation of this were needed, it would be found in one single recent instance, when the General Assembly rejected the scheme carefully considered and prepared by the

Council of Ministers concerning the Suez Canal. The betrayal, in the opinion of the late Sir Eldon Gorst, that the scheme—the result of long and laborious negotiations, and considered by those best competent to judge to be undoubtedly advantageous to Egypt—was not examined with an open mind by the General Assembly, which evidenced an entire lack of confidence in the intentions and good faith of the Government.

The main lines of the arrangement proposed were that when the existing concessions came to an end in 1968, they should be prolonged for another forty years, and that during such further period the profits of the Suez Canal should be equally divided between the Egyptian Government and the Canal Company. The half-share of the profits during the extended period which the company would acquire, was to be paid for partly by a lump sum of £4,000,000 and partly by gradually increasing the share of the Government in the profits from 1921 to 1968. The Government were not authorised by the Organic Law to consult the General Assembly, but "in view of its exceptional importance to the present and future generations" they decided to do so. What the Government had taken twelve months to carefully consider, and after "long and laborious negotiations," arrange, the General Assembly disposed of in a few weeks! There was neither consideration nor discussion worthy of the great importance of the subject, no realisation either of the work of the Government or the significance of the contract, if approved, to the country's finances, and the assistance it would lend to its development. It was an intolerable exhibition of Nationalist temper unworthy of any serious public assembly; and, knowing the spirit of that assembly as well as they did, it is sur-

prising the British Adviser and the Government ever invited the rejection of a measure of such great importance by the assembly, or heeded its decision when they possessed the conviction that the subject had not received impartial or sufficient consideration.

It will thus be seen that although the Egyptian Nationalist may clamour for a constitution he has as yet offered no convincing example of his ability to legislate in either of his two assemblies. The attributes of a competent legislator are regrettably lacking, for he has revealed himself to be a creature controlled by pique, sensitive and yielding to party abuse. He has neither backbone nor independence and does not hesitate to place his own feelings before his country's welfare. There are undoubtedly more men suited to be legislators outside the assemblies than in them, but so long as both bodies simply reflect the Nationalist opinion these men prefer to remain outside.

The Egyptian needs to be convinced that the constitutional question is not one to be entered upon lightly, and that at present, and for many years to come, it is impossible of consideration. In addition to the purely Egyptian view of the question, Great Britain has imperial aspects to consider. We hold the Soudan to protect the sources of the Nile—and the Nile is Egypt. The Cape to Cairo Railway now nearing completion must also come within consideration, and, having taken up the burden of the enormous Soudan, we owe to it a duty concerning its civilisation and development equal to that which we owe to Egypt.

The Power occupying Egypt controls the Suez Canal—the highway to our Indian Empire and our Eastern possessions, and there is every indication

from a military point of view that Egypt has increased in importance under the new reorganisation scheme for the disposition of our expeditionary forces. It is an excellent training ground for our troops, and offers a base whence they can be expeditiously dispatched to the assistance of our Eastern possessions.

The people of Egypt still remain a sacred charge upon us, however much the welfare of the masses may be overlooked by those few impetuous Nationalists who see in a speedy constitution personal opportunities for legislative and perhaps cabinet honours.

We are also at present held responsible by the international Powers for the protection of their interests and the interests of their subjects resident in Egypt, whose energy, ability, enterprise and wealth have contributed their share to the advancement of the country. And we owe a duty to ourselves—to our own dignity and honour.

In the language of Mr. Roosevelt we "should either govern the country or get out!" The Egyptians who aspire to govern have shown no capacity for it, and considering their past under absolute government and the short duration of the British Occupation, this is not surprising. The constitution, when it does come, must be representative of the people of Egypt and mindful of its obligations.

"Once show me," said Lord Cromer, in addressing the Eighty Club, "a prospect that an Egyptian constitution can be created which will represent the views and interests of all the inhabitants of the Nile Valley, which will inspire the confidence of Europe, and of all the dwellers in Egypt of every creed, which will maintain the reasonable rights of the Khedive,

and will safeguard the reasonable rights of Turkey, and I will at once become an ardent Egyptian constitutionalist."

The foreign population of Egypt, as acknowledged by Lord Cromer and in the programme of the independent Egyptian party, have rights to representation which must be considered by any scheme for a constitution; but, like the natives, the foreign element is not prepared to exercise such rights or privileges. In fact, it would be difficult to secure from many of the communities fit and proper persons to be recommended for high and responsible office in a parliamentary assembly.

It is questionable whether on the whole they aspire to it, for under the Capitulations they secure many advantages with few responsibilities. They are even exonerated from the performance of certain national duties which would fall upon them if resident in their own countries, and they get certain benefits from the Egyptian Government whilst exempted from directly contributing towards its support. They pay no income tax, nor are they called upon to contribute in taxes towards the government and administration of the country, although enjoying equal privileges with the Egyptians. It is time this was altered, for the burden should not fall upon the shoulders of the natives alone, and foreigners who flock to Egypt in their thousands might be reasonably expected to contribute a fair share towards the administration of the country in which they reside and make a living.

Numerous reforms are needed in Egypt, and not the least wanted are those applying to foreign communities resident in the country. "The Capitulations," recently remarked an eminent Italian minister, "have served their purpose. Like old money they

should be withdrawn from use." "As regards legislation in matters where foreigners are concerned, there is, I regret," writes Sir Eldon Gorst, "no progress to be recorded. It is a labour of Hercules to get the assent of fifteen Powers to any alteration in the Mixed Codes, and until some change is effected in the existing method of legislating, foreigners resident or having interests in Egypt must continue to bear with resignation the imperfections and deficiencies of the law."

Undoubtedly in the interests of even-handed justice the existing system of consular courts needs revision, or rather abolition, in favour of Mixed Courts, with English and Egyptian judges, for there is not wanting frequent evidence in criminal cases in which Europeans are concerned that the administration of justice is not as impartial as it should be. But the position of certain Powers may be taken as a reflection of the feelings of their subjects, who would be loth at present to trust themselves to either the jurisdiction or jurisprudence of the Egyptian courts. Thus the privilege of trial of an accused person by his consular courts according to his national law continues and will continue indefinitely until the British Government firmly takes the initiative and provides a fitting and acceptable substitute, in fairness to legitimate native demands and the needs of the country. This will put an end to many abuses, the existence of which honest European residents regret, and will relieve Egypt of the stigma of being a modern Alsatia for European rascality.

Numerous reforms are also needed in the civil courts, as indicated from time to time by the foreign bar, and the admission of the English language for pleading should be firmly insisted on

as a matter of prestige; although the privilege exists it is generally ignored, for it is frequently found that it is not possible owing to the want of a competent interpreter in the courts. The Mixed Tribunals, as they are conducted at present, cannot be said to inspire confidence, particularly in the case of British litigants, and there is much need for more British judges.

Unquestionably the system of government most suited to the needs of Egypt at present and for many years to come is absolute government, and whilst we give due, but not sentimental encouragement to the development of legitimate native aspirations, when those aspirations reveal capacity, there should be no truckling to political parties or retreat before ill-advised native agitation. British control must be paramount and more in evidence than it has been.

Sir Edward Grey, in his speech on Egypt following the debate in the House of Commons on Mr. Roosevelt's address at the Guildhall, spoke strongly and clearly, "because it was essential there should be no misunderstanding." His words are worthy of being placed on permanent record :—

"You cannot use," he said, "the Legislative Council or the General Assembly to improve the Government of Egypt if they are to become, as they have lately shown a tendency to become, the mere instrument of what is called the National movement against British occupation. It is a limited class, which calls itself Nationalist, and the object of a great part of the agitators is undoubtedly to bring British occupation to an end by making our task in Egypt impossible. They do it by abuse of Anglo-Egyptian officers, by insulting all Egyptians who do not oppose British control, and by inciting to

disorder. You can make no progress with the development of the Government of Egypt through Egyptians, as long as that agitation against the British occupation continues. I have spoken sympathetically about the development of the self-government of Egypt on previous occasions, but if all we have been doing in that direction is simply going to increase agitation against the British Government, we can go no further in that direction. We are trustees in the first place for the natives of Egypt themselves, and no one can say that that trusteeship has not been discharged on our part with a high sense of duty and with great success. We are also trustees for good order and public security in Egypt. We are trustees for the interests of Europeans as well as the communities in Egypt. It is quite true that the task of improving and developing satisfactory government in England is hampered to a considerable extent by the restrictions under which the Egyptian Government, and therefore we ourselves, are placed by the present antiquated regulations. It is urgently necessary that in the near future those treaty rights with regard to Egypt should by some means or other be brought more into harmony with modern conditions."

The policy for administering Egypt is therefore laid down and it is to be trusted there will in future be neither wavering nor pusillanimity in its administration. It was never thus characterised in the past, and if, as is possible, the late British representative was experimenting, at the instance of the Home Government, to test the capacity of the Egyptians for self-government, the results have justified the wise rule of Lord Cromer. The principle which is henceforth to apply to the actual

government might also be directed to the details of the Administration. For some time past it had been the general custom to supplant competent British officials in the Administration by Egyptians, many of whom have never given proof of their capacity for the discharge of duties thrust upon them. The experiment has not given much satisfaction, although in a few instances, notably that of the Khedivial Training College, it has been successful. It bears the imprint of having been too hurriedly adopted and has not even the merit of effecting economies, whilst there has been more than a reasonable suspicion to justify the belief that an appointment of a native to a post hitherto held by a highly-trained Englishman was due to the demand of the native Press or to Nationalist promptings. It is, of course, only right and proper that when vacancies appear they should if possible be filled by competent and honest natives, but the result has been a lack of confidence in the Government and its intentions towards its European officials among Englishmen in the service. This became so marked that it was necessary for the late British representative in a recent report to endeavour to allay misgivings concerning the future which had become general; and the fact that recently two British judges were found suing the Egyptian Government for alleged breaches of agreement did not tend to inspire confidence or to reassure the bulk of British officials in the Egyptian service. And with reference to these servants it is well to recall the tribute of Mr. Balfour in the now historic debate in the House of Commons, when Sir Edward Grey laid down the policy of the Liberal Government as regards Egypt: "We send out to such countries as Egypt of our very best. They work and they strive

not for very great remuneration, not under very easy or luxurious circumstances, to carry out what they conceive to be their duty to the country to which they belong and the country they serve. If they lose the sense that they are supported at home their whole position is undermined. Directly the native population have the instinctive feeling that those with whom they have to deal have not behind them the might, the authority, the sympathy, the full and ungrudging support of the country which sent them there, they lost all that sense of order which is the very basis of their civilisation, just as our officers lose their sense of power."

The British official in Egypt needs some distinct assurance of permanent employment, sympathy and the support in the discharge of his duties of the British representative. When conscientiously discharging a moral duty, imperative upon any responsible official, as in the case of the headmistress of the Sanieh Training College, he must not be sacrificed to the whimsicalities of a Nationalist minister at the head of a department, and sensitive to newspaper scurrility. There has been too much in evidence a policy of guiding the Egyptians from the privacy of the consular chamber and too much fear of being accused of directing them.

In the minds of the people British supervision of the administration still predominates, and the late wholesale appointment of native judges and parquet officials is by no means satisfactory. The value of the English judge or magistrate is that he is honest and impartial in the administration of justice, and his appointment is not followed, as in the case sometimes of the Egyptian, by the sudden occupancy of subordinate posts by a host of needy relatives. It

is impossible to convince the people that judges of their own nationality have reached the high standard their office demands in so short a time, and for this reason other Powers, whose ideas are not weakened by sentiment, have not the optimistic confidence that we seem officially to possess in the native character. Bribery is innate in the Oriental nature and it cannot be eradicated in the few years in which we have endeavoured to recast the morality of native officials, who have no traditions of honourable service behind them. The Englishman may not always be loved by the natives, but he is trusted.

To the unimpassioned observer the regrettable feature of Egyptian public life, limited as it is by the comparatively small number of the population who are sufficiently educated to take an intelligent interest in public affairs, is the waste of energy and the frittering away of opportunities. This may be attributed to some extent to the vanity of the native character. The policy of Lord Cromer was to protect and uplift the people; thus reversing the previous order of things which neglected and oppressed the people for the benefit of the wealthy ruling class. Except in politics the notables have been robbed of their influence and power for evil, and it is easy to conceive that the policy of the British Government does not readily find acceptance and sympathy from those who desire to rule.

Putting Nationalist politics on one side, it will be found that the Egyptian who takes an interest in public affairs, in spite of British statements of policy concerning self-government, desires to start at the top instead of at the bottom. He probably feels confident of his ability to begin at the top and is unable to accept general testimony as to his want

of capacity as a legislator. He desires to regain in a political position the despotic power he was forced to vacate when the British set to work to reconstruct the social and political fabric. His vanity is notoriety and his one desire is to rule.

Thus we see year after year immense sums of money and much energy being wasted in fighting fruitlessly the task of constitutional reform which, if applied to the foundations of the structure, would not only do an incalculable amount of good by assisting the people in co-operating in the slow and laborious work the Administration have set their hands to do, but would gradually step by step inspire confidence within and without, and prepare unconsciously the men whose duty in the future it may be to legislate. The workers would acquire a practical knowledge of the duties and privileges of the administrator.

What Egypt essentially needs is municipalisation and the co-operation of disinterested public effort, with those private means which are so ruthlessly squandered on ill-advised unproductive political effort. To those who know his weaknesses well, it is perhaps too much to expect the Egyptian notable to settle down to the unattractive drudgery of municipal effort, but this is the crying need of the country.

Instead of worrying his soul over the possibilities of cabinet and ministerial appointments the notable should get down to bedrock and start by taking a careful and intelligent and impartial interest in the actual work of the administration. It offers, as will be seen, many opportunities for criticism, development and improvement. Egypt needs municipal reform, not constitutional reform. The possibility of Egypt infecting Europe with plague

has probably never occurred to the Egyptian public man thirsting for reputation—the death-rate among his unfortunate fellow-citizens, the conditions of their dwellings and environment hold out no special interest to him. The extension of education, the purification of the law courts and public services, the efficiency and the extension of the railways, to be run in time as public conveniences for the benefit of the public and not as huge profit-earning institutions, should invite his attention and interest, but they fail to do so, thus justifying the accusation of those who are ready to allege that the Egyptian politician cares nothing for the people, their lives, or their institutions.

Frequently the Egyptians show pleasure in their Press in likening themselves to the Japanese, and take, as Orientals, a personal pride in the wonderful achievements of the Japanese race. Where the points of similarity between the two peoples are in the experience of those who are acquainted with both races, it is difficult to conceive. There is no occasion to attempt to enumerate the special qualities and virtues of the Japanese, but it is no exaggeration to state that except in the industry of the peasantry, and in other striking individual cases, the Egyptian if he possesses them does not betray them. The Japanese is an intense patriot, and his patriotism is built on the rock of self-sacrifice ; he is marvellously painstaking, patient and thorough. He has the proud traditions of a race behind him and learns from his childhood the habits of self-discipline and veneration for parental authority, and that of those placed over him, qualities necessary to the formation of character which in the young Egyptian of to-day who aspires to be the legislator of to-morrow are conspicuous by their absence. His public men toil upwards patiently

from the bottom, and the small affairs of local government are to them at the time as important as the big affairs of state. They are in earnest in most things they do, and do not hesitate to sacrifice their personal ambitions; they are a virile and educated race who have set themselves to do in Korea what the British have done in Egypt, profiting from our successes and our mistakes.

There is much for even the Egyptian Nationalist, overflowing with energy, principles and enthusiasm, to do, in order to advance the good of his country if he will seek out the work to do and put his hands to it, and he will be surprised to learn in time how one task develops qualifications for the other.

The closing reflections of these chapters on the Administration of Egypt may be directed to the position of the late British representative in Cairo, who was subjected to so much hostile criticism not only by his fellow-countrymen in Egypt, but by many of the other European communities resident in that country, including also those Egyptians who were in sympathy with the British Occupation and appreciative of its benefits. As to the particular merits of that criticism there is now no need to speak, for Sir Edward Grey, in the matter of the growth of Nationalist agitation, saw fit to assume the responsibility, at the same time bestowing a handsome tribute to the ability and faithful service of the late British representative. One cause of the unpopular position of the British Agent-General was that he gave no indication that the opinion of many old residents in Egypt, merchants and retired officials, equally competent to judge, having a sound knowledge of the native character and perhaps more in touch with native opinions and feelings, weighed

with him in any degree. On the contrary, he was charged with treating such advice with cynical indifference. In the heat engendered by the threatening aspect of affairs and this lack of public recognition, the steadfast loyalty that hitherto in times of crises has never been withheld from the official head of the British community was unfortunately absent, and the feeling of resentment was general. It is evident, however, that the late Sir Eldon Gorst was not given the credit due to him of possessing his own opinion on the situation, which for aught the public knew to the contrary may have been quite in keeping with their own. He gave no indication of his personal feelings, and it was not to be expected that he was at liberty to betray his feelings or to publicly announce the views of his Government.

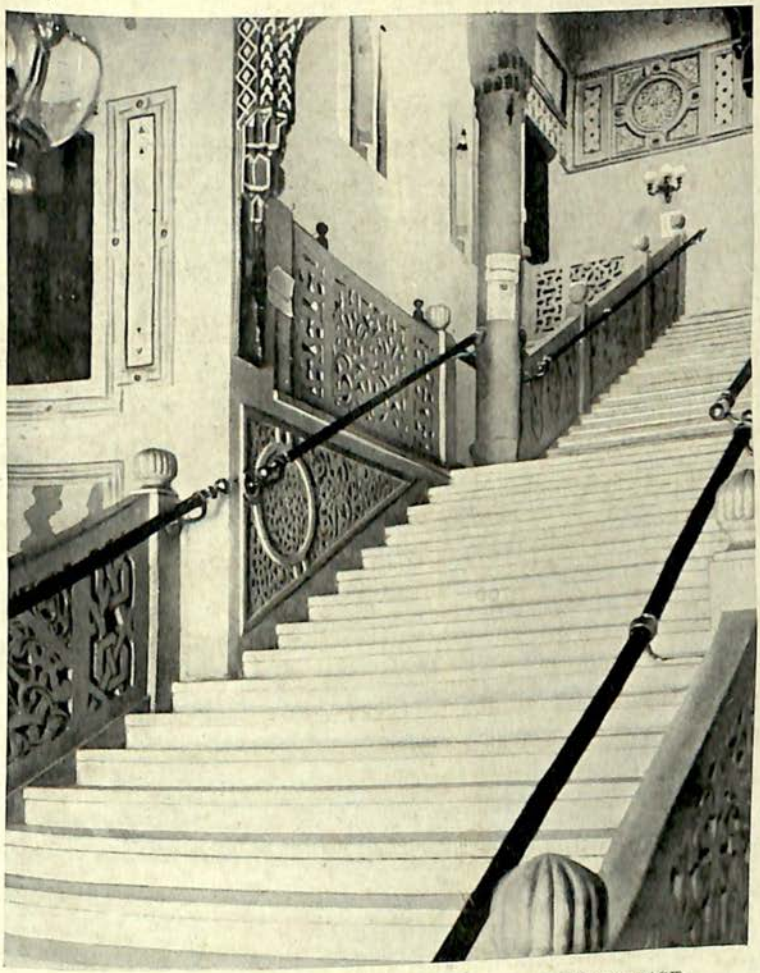
His career in Cairo as a successor to Lord Cromer was never popular in Egypt. There is no need to emphasise his great ability—that was always universally acknowledged by those who disapproved of the policy he was called upon to apply. His task was a Herculean one and trying under any circumstances, and it was impossible for him to please all his critics; but it is evident, in the light of recent events and the effect of the firmer attitude adopted, that the policy and attitude laid down by Lord Cromer are the correct ones to pursue for many years to come in the administration and uplifting of Egypt. It is a policy and an attitude adopted not only in the best and truest interests of the Egyptians themselves, but also having due regard for our obligations to the Powers, their subjects resident in Egypt, and the international bondholders.

Britain should rule in Egypt absolutely, definitely, and firmly, and there should be no deviation either

to right or left from the policy now laid down. The rights and privileges of Egypt have been proved to be safe in the hands of the British Government.

Events within the last few years suggested that the need of Egypt for the position of the British representative is not an able diplomat, but a strong, fearless, and impartial governor, one who, whilst carrying out the instructions of his Government, can impress his strength and personality upon that Government, upon the Egyptian people and throughout the various branches of the Administration; for even these have suffered since Lord Cromer's departure and need a careful overhauling. After the untimely decease of Sir Eldon Gorst it seemed too much to hope that Lord Kitchener might be appointed to this very responsible post, but his appointment is now an accomplished fact.

With so strong and able a man at the helm, with the country pacified, and political unrest absent, with a just administration adequate to meet the increasing needs, the land will continue to progress, especially when it receives the benefit of the revision of those "antiquated treaty rights" which now check its progress and cause dissatisfaction. The confidence of European investors may be expected to return speedily, and their capital is much needed to assist in the development of the land and its resources. There is still much to be done and too little to do it with. A prosperous Egypt, under such favourable conditions, will in time mean that which all who have lived in the country and among its people will sincerely welcome—a progressive and enlightened Egypt; and on the welfare of this land depend also the welfare and development of those enormous territories of the Soudan.



THE EGYPTIAN UNIVERSITY, CAIRO: PRINCIPAL STAIRCASE.

CHAPTER XIV

OUR POSITION IN EGYPT

It will be apparent to all who have had sufficient patience to read the foregoing chapters that, to quote the important utterance of Sir Edward Grey, "it is urgently necessary in the near future the treaty rights with regard to Egypt should by some means or other be brought more into harmony with modern conditions. It is a hopeless and impossible task to aim at improving and developing satisfactorily the land of Egypt hampered as the Administration and the British Government are by the restrictions placed upon them by the existing antiquated regulations."

The Capitulations were useful in their day, in the Ottoman Empire, but that day, as far as Egypt is concerned, has long since passed, and Great Britain would have found her task infinitely easier and more beneficial for the purposes to be served had it been possible for her to have ignored their existence when she entered Egypt by right of conquest of the revolutionary forces. Other Powers interested in the country were invited to co-operate but held back, and Great Britain was forced to undertake the work alone.

The time has certainly arrived when some definite advancement is necessary. Since the Anglo-French

Convention of 1904 concerning Morocco, many changes in the international political situation, as applied to the Near East and Northern Africa, have occurred. Tripoli has passed from Turkish hands into those of Italy, and Egypt has thus an enterprising, and, as the events leading up to the acquisition of the territory proved, an aggressive neighbour. On the other side there is the steadily-increasing Germano-Turkish influence, far-reaching and ambitious in its objective. Egypt is now sandwiched between two virile neighbours whose existence she cannot afford to ignore and whose ambitions it would be folly to overlook. Great Britain, in the interests of India and her African possessions, must safeguard and adequately strengthen her position in Egypt. Her right to do so should be unquestioned, and it would save future concessions and avoid subsequent international difficulties.

It is hardly conceivable that such a measure of support would have been extended to France by Great Britain over the Agadir incident without some *quid pro quo* having been given. Germany's compensation was the Congo concession, and it is reasonable to assume that the moment was propitious for Great Britain to have arrived at some understanding with France—as the other foreign Power principally interested in Egypt—concerning her position on the Nile. The Convention of 1904 could hardly be stretched far enough to cover the Agadir dispute and the case of the territory in Morocco which has now passed under French control. Italy gave her assent to the same convention, but she has since occupied Tripoli.

It may, of course, be argued that in truth and actuality Egypt is already a British protectorate,

and Britain is there to stay. In fact, considering that our garrison is in Egypt chiefly to safeguard the Suez Canal, as the highway to our Far Eastern possessions, our occupation must for this reason alone be permanent, and designs on the part of any other Power which threatened the object of that occupation would at once produce a definite announcement on our part.

But the oft-repeated diplomatic juggling of language concerning our position in Egypt, inspiring and comforting perhaps to the aspirations of the Egyptian Nationalist, and satisfactory as it may be for the polite requirements of diplomatic intercourse, is neither convincing nor satisfying to the people of the country we seek to lead in the art of self-government, nor fair to ourselves.

In the language of Mr. Roosevelt we should either govern absolutely, which means thoroughly, or get out. The latter, for imperial reasons, more important now owing to their recent development than ever before, and for political reasons, resulting from the recent changes in spheres of influence, we cannot do. If we did, other Powers would soon get in. We must hold on, and firmly. We are forced into the position of suzerains, and, frankly recognising this, we must see that the situation demands the consolidation and strengthening of our position there. To us it is essential that the country should be well and strongly governed. Ten years ago the necessity for this was stated in an official report, which said that India was directly and substantially interested not merely in the security of the Suez Canal but also in the maintenance of order in Egypt as a condition of that security.

If it was thought strategically necessary then to the well-being of our Indian Empire, how much more

necessary is it to-day in view of the development of the Soudan, the linking up of our African colonies in east and south by rail, and the rapid advancement of the political spheres of influence of other Powers in the vicinity of Egypt.

It is impossible to believe that Lord Kitchener has gone to Egypt merely to terrorise a few thousand Nationalists in Cairo or to bring the country up to date in the requirements of modern municipalisation. He is there as our greatest living military expert, with an infinite capacity it may be granted for those reforms in civil government which Egypt so sorely needs; but his recent visits to Egypt and the Soudan, and his important mission to the Colonies, are suggestive of the development of greater and more profound issues than the tranquillisation of the people and the reform of an obsolete and unsatisfactory civil administration. It did not call for an officer of his genius and calibre to entirely accomplish this. In our army of colonial governors and administrative officials serving in India and our Colonies we have many able men qualified by training, character, and experience to perform such work.

It is perhaps wiser to assume that Egypt has at last been appraised at its real value to us, strategically and imperially. To the south is the Soudan, already British, where will be found in time a railroad communicating with our South African Empire, and whence another line already running to Port Soudan on the Red Sea. To the east is the Red Sea, its shore line for the most part British, with Aden at the far end, India and the sea route to British East Africa beyond. To the west is the Mediterranean with our two great naval stations. From a military

standpoint Egypt has become the principal depot of our expeditionary forces, and Lord Kitchener, with his great experience of the country and his military foresight, has undoubtedly realised its great and, to us, precious possibilities. It is the new pivot of our military organisation, for with its Commander-in-Chief there will rest the final decision as to the movements of our imperial and colonial forces. The maintenance of a large European garrison in Tripoli, necessary for many years to come, may affect the strength of our forces in Egypt. All this points to many possibilities, far fetched though such ideas may seem at the moment.

Conventions and Capitulations therefore are unlikely to affect in any way the military requirements of the Empire as to our garrison in Egypt, its strength and its objective. It may be assumed that they do not intrude themselves into the military councils at all. The country has been found to be an excellent training ground for our soldiers in which a striking force can be kept active, and in that condition of physical perfection demanded of it.

It remains therefore to be seen if the anticipated announcement concerning the "decisive step in Egypt" regarded as essential to the country's progress and the consolidation of our position there, will be made. There is little opposition to be feared from other Powers. Austria has put herself out of court by recently quietly annexing Ottoman territory, with the moral support of her ally, and it would hardly be possible for her to protest with any degree of convincing sincerity. Germany's interests in Egypt are small, very small, and she would probably be prepared to accept any reasonable compensation

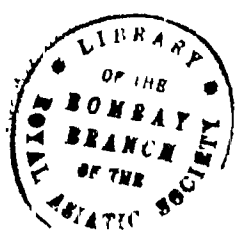
which might be forthcoming. She has no prejudice against British protectorates, for in these her traders are assured of exactly the same treatment and rights as are enjoyed by British merchants. On the contrary, from a commercial standpoint, and Germany has none other in Egypt, her commerce would benefit by a pacified and prosperous Egypt. In politics Germany has ever been loyal to Great Britain and has ever followed the policy originally laid down of moral support to the task we undertook.

There remains only Turkey, whose actual claims are hardly of the strongest considering that she cheerfully relinquished the task of the pacification and purification of Egypt to the self-denying British tax-payer and his able representatives. Her interest in Egypt is purely a pecuniary one—the question of an annual income. The question of religion hardly arises, for Turkey, from her knowledge and experience of Great Britain, has no misgivings on this score. With her it simply resolves itself into a question of compensation, and she would expect and receive generous treatment.

The claims of other Powers to consideration are insignificant; their interest is entirely commercial and they are fully aware of the advantages accruing to them from a settled Egypt, for they also possess the knowledge that with the unselfish system of British colonisation the country is open to all who care to enter and trade. The British merchant has no preferential rights over his foreign colleagues. Thus commercially all nations have much to gain from a tranquil, strong, and well-administered Egypt.

The time, therefore, is opportune for the complete repudiation of those "antiquated regulations" which hamper the development of modern Egypt.

The removal of these obstacles—which have served their day in the Ottoman Dominions of the remote past—is necessary to the advancement of Egypt and the civilisation of its people. Imperially, they have ceased to influence us.



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